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The purpose of this study was to measure possible effects of post-manpower training counseling of an occupational nature upon certain facets of perception and behavior of 110 subjects from eight selected Oklahoma Manpower Development and Training Act classes held during 1967-68. The effects of the counseling treatment were measured by the subject's job satisfaction scores, employee performance scores, training efficiency, and general employability. Data consisted of demographic variables and information provided by two counselors, each working with randomly assigned subjects for an average of 18.6 hours per individual client. This study revealed that counseling did not bring about a higher job satisfaction level on the part of counseled subjects when means of their test scores were tested against those not counseled. Similarly, the employee performance mean test scores of counseled subjects were not significantly different to a magnitude which proved counseling affected this performance; however, the counseling treatment was found to significantly affect the subjects obtaining bona fide and legitimate jobs, the number of weeks it required subjects to get such jobs, and the percent of time subjects held such jobs. (CH)

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September, 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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CHAPTER I

THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Our society is becoming increasingly aware of the need for technical competence. In recent years, legislation has been enacted aimed at short term rehabilitation and training of individuals who have profited very little from their public school experience. The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 was an example of this aim. Likewise, the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and the 1965 Economic Opportunity Act provided for some form of short term training experience.

Within the context of this introduction we will concern ourselves with the philosophy of Manpower Development, as purported by the two Federal agencies responsible for development and training, the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the U.S. Department of Labor. A report by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (45, p. 1) summed up this Manpower philosophy as:

> The Manpower Act was born to help combat as intolerably high unemployment rate and job loss partially due to technological change. It has matured to become a vital tool in meeting the problems and challenges of a full-employment economy.

> We are haunted no longer by the specter of a chronic and insurmountable unemployment rate dooming millions to a life of involuntary idleness in poverty, family disorganization, and personal deterioration of spirit.

Yet, there appears to be many unmet needs in America. The previous report (45, p. 1) goes on to say:

> . . .The requirements of the growing population for more goods, the cry of the cities for renewal and rehabilitation, and a decent standard of living for all citizens will demand a tremendous productive effort. The economic challenges which for nearly two centuries have absorbed the energies of Americans, among them millions of immigrants, have not disappeared. Demands for performance of new kinds of work and higher levels of skill in older occupations require versatility and excellence.

The Manpower Development and Training Act (henceforth will be referred to as MDTA) was refortified with additional funds since 1962. In 1963, $52,840,000 in funds were authorized under MDTA for institutional and on-the-job programs plus another $2,923,000 for special services. By 1965, $286,488,000 was being used for institutional, on-the-job and coupled programs plus an additional $16,477,000 for the special services. Funds authorized in 1966 and 1967 were around 350 million dollars with nearly 250 thousand to 300 thousand persons being helped by Manpower per year (46, p. 73).

A Manpower Report of the President (50, p. 50) summarizes the refocusing of MDTA Programs:

> Since its enactment, the Manpower Development and Training Act has been a living, changing law, with substantial amendment on three occasions, and the MDTA programs have demonstrated flexibility and capacity to adapt quickly to changing needs. At the start, in 1962, fear of technological displacement was the uppermost concern. Occupations in which opportunities were growing were identified, and displaced but experienced workers were trained to fill them. As concern grew for the problem of jobless youth, special youth programs were developed to provide young people with entry skills. When a widespread need for basic

> education prior to vocational training became apparent, the Congress responded by authorizing basic literary training. As experience accumulated, it was evident that MDTA programs were functioning effectively, within the limits of their funding, for large numbers of unemployed people who could be brought into the mainstream of employment.

Since the enactment of the Manpower Act of 1962, there has been some major changes in direction, commitment and concern of the total Manpower picture. The Manpower Act of 1965 was undoubtedly the most significant of this (64, p. 1-2).

> As the 1965 amendments to the Manpower Act were put into effect, a major administrative redirection of MDTA was also begun to meet emerging manpower shortages in certain skills and to train more disadvantage workers and place them in jobs. Training goals for fiscal year 1967 (beginning July 1, 1966), issued by the Secretary of Labor in consultation with the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, anticipated that 65 percent of the training effort was to be directed toward helping disadvantaged people unable to compete for jobs, of which 25 percent was to be focused on disadvantaged youth. The remaining 35 percent of the training effort was to provide training in skill-shortage occupations for youth and adults.
>
> . . .The new administrative goals for fiscal year 1966. . . began to alter administrative and training patterns late in the calendar year. Briefly, these amendments authorized: provisions of basic education and training in order to find jobs, even though persons are not being trained with a specific job objective in view; payment for physical examinations and minor medical treatment, under certain circumstances; advance payment of training allowances when necessary; and experimental programs for training inmates of correctional institutions and part-time training in occupations and localities with severe skill shortages.

The MDTA of 1965 (46, p. 6-7) was highly significant in that:

> . . .it contained authority to conduct experimental, developmental, demonstrational, and pilot projects to search for ways to improve techniques of teaching, counseling, training and placing such groups as the long-term unemployed, disadvantaged youth, displaced older workers; the handicapped, and others with special needs.
>
> To consolidate administration of the Nation's Manpower Training efforts, the 1965 amendments also transferred redevelopment area programs (formerly under the Area Redevelopment and Training Act). Another significant provision

> postponed the matching requirement stipulated in the original act. States' future contributions were held to ten percent of the total expenditures, the further advantage that matching could be in cash or in kind.

A report by the Department of Labor (50, p. 2) discusses a raise in the gross national product of more than a third from the beginning of 1961 to the close of 1966. During the same interval the rate of unemployment was cut nearly in half -- from about seven to under four percent. This lead Department of Labor officials to suggest that:

> This country has now reached the point where the most serious remaining unemployment problems are as much personal as economic, where there are emerging skill shortages where the primary need is to develop peoples abilities so that they can take advantage of the opportunities that are available.

It is within the context of looking for answers to some of these dynamic personal and attitudinal problems of persons who have been trained, yet do not fit satisfactorily into the world of work, that this counseling investigation is born.

Statement of the Problem

This dissertation was concerned with an investigation of differences of selected measures of job satisfaction and employers' rating between experimental and control groups of selected MDTA trained persons following a counseling treatment.

The study was also concerned with demographic characteristics of the subjects. A quantitative look at the subject's age, marital status, number of dependents, years of formal education, training received and past public assistance aid was made. Data centered around the subjects' employment were also gathered, such as time lag following retraining before taking a job, the percent of time the subject held a job in a two to three month period after retraining, the wages earned, and determination as to whether the job held was related to that for which the subject was trained. Included in this study are several case studies to exemptify employment and social problems of several of the subjects counseled.

Need for the Study

The individual who receives MDTA training must be certified as unemployed or underemployed by the states' employment securities commissions. These commissions report the work status of workers three months, six months, and one year after having been trained by MDTA.

A Manpower Report (50, p. xii-xiii) stated that three of four trainees who completed their MDTA classroom work had gone on to regular employment and nearly nine out of ten who had completed on-the-job training were gainfully employed. Yet, in slums and depressed rural areas, joblessness ran close to ten percent. And one out of every three people in those areas who are or ought to be working today, faces some severe employment problem. It was in several of these rural depressed areas that this experiment was carried out.

Basic to the need for this study has been the continuous reporting about counseling and psychology of the MDTA trained by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Department of Labor. One Manpower Report (42, p. 1) had this to say about characteristics and attitudes of MDTA trainees.

> While a great deal is know about demographic characteristics of the MDTA trainees--age, sex, education, and annual income--little is known about their psychology. Almost nothing is known about how they think and feel, what they

> worry about, expect, or enjoy. It is not known, for example, whether they liked their last jobs, were indifferent to them, or hated them. Very little is known of the psychological factors that determine why some trainees are eager for retraining, while others drop it.

Although the state employment security commissions provide counseling services to potential MDTA trainees, apparently little if any systematic counseling program has been devised to help the trainee adjust to the rigors of the labor market in terms of job seeking, job holding and job satisfaction.

Another Manpower Report (49, p. 162) had this to say when discussing counseling services:

> Many educationally and cultural disadvantaged people are not motivated to work or seek training to enhance their employability. They may be hostile and suspicious of any efforts to help them. The employment service has, accordingly, begun a program of out-reach into the community to seek out those who need vocational rehabilitation through counseling and other services. This requires appropriately trained staff, who go outside the local office to inform and interest individuals in the counseling and other help available to them, and to motivate youths to return to school or take appropriate occupational training.

While these discussions have largely been centered around counseling in a pre-training program, many questions are unanswered as to what happens to the trainee who terminates his training program, receives first job after retraining and faces the world of work--in a sense, much along--for example:

1. Can the graduate adapt himself to his new job--socially and environmentally?
2. Can he get along or learn to get along with his foreman and bosses?
3. Can he get along with those peers with whom he works?
4. Will he actually feel a sense of social improvement by his job holding act?

5. If he has problems with adjustment to whom could he turn to for advisement, guidance and counseling?

This study is based on the premise that trainees will benefit from guidance activities.

Purpose, Objectives and Hypotheses of the Study

The purpose of this study was to ascertain what effect on-the-job and post-MDTA-training-counseling had upon individuals adaptation to their work situation.

The major objectives of the study were:

1. To determine the effect of counseling upon individuals' job satisfaction;
2. To determine the effect of counseling upon individuals' performance rating as provided by their employers;
3. To determine the effect of counseling upon training efficiency during a time period as measured by:
    A. Subjects holding jobs.
    B. Subjects working at training related jobs.
4. To determine the effect of counseling upon employability during a time period as measured by:
    A. Number of weeks extended before subjects obtained jobs.
    B. Percent of time that subjects held jobs.
    C. Dollars earned from jobs.
    D. Dollars received from all income.
    E. Dollars earned during the last week.

The following null hypotheses are stated in order to test the effects of the counseling treatment upon selected dependent variables arising from the major objectives:

Ho_1: There is no significant difference in subjects' job satisfaction mean scores at the end of the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_2: There is no significant difference in subjects' employee performance rating mean scores at the end of the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_3: There is no significant difference in the ratio of those holding bonafide and legitimate jobs and those not holding such jobs during the experimental period, between control groups and treatment groups.

Ho_4: There is no significant difference in the ratio of those working at closely related jobs for which they had been trained and those who did not work at such jobs during the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_5: There is no significant difference in mean number of weeks expended by all subjects to obtain bonafide and legitimate jobs after completion or termination from Manpower training, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_6: There is no significant difference in mean percent of time all subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_7: There is no significant difference in mean dollars earned by all subjects from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the converted experimental period, between treatment and control groups.

Ho_8: There is no significant difference in mean dollars received from all income during the converted experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Ho_9: There is no significant difference in mean dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate jobs by all subjects during the last week of the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

The minor objectives of the study were:

1. To make observations and attempt to identify factors (age, married status, welfare receiving, availability of auto, etc.) that seem to be concomitant with the dependent variables--job satisfaction, time it took to get a job and the earning status of subjects--other than the independent variable of the counseling treatment.
2. To gather information and make observations on employer-MDTA trained employee relationships.
3. To present several counseling cases in case study form to exemplify the work of the counselors.
4. To organize information that will be useful to MDTA counselors, guidance personnel, program instructors, and administrators in meeting the post-training counseling needs of retrained persons.

The minor objective, number one above, was not treated with statistical techniques other than to present the selected possible concomitant variables in frequency counted tabular form. The other minor objectives were not, of course, testable by traditional statistical techniques, but were carried out through observations. These observations should be used to Manpower, Employment Securities Commissions and adult vocational counselors working with disadvantaged persons.

Definitions of Terms

1. Manpower Development and Training Act: A Federal Act, Public Law 87-415 amended, under which various retraining programs have been established. Persons in these programs are referred to in this study in some instances as "Manpower trained" or "MDTA trained."
2. Experimental Groups; A reference to the six experiment groups to which subjects were randomly selected for use in the study. There were three Treatment Groups and three Control Groups; and these are further defined by items three and four on this page
3. Treatment Group: Subjects in the study who received post-Manpower training counseling services during the experimental period. Treatment groups were classified by (1) Counselor Number One's treatment group, (2) Counselor Number Two's treatment group, and (3) total treatment group which indicated a combining of counselors' groups. Subjects from treatment group are sometimes referred to as clients since they received counseling services.
4. Control Group: Subjects in the study who did not receive post-Manpower counseling services during the experimental period. Control groups were classified by (1) Counselor Number One's control group, (2) Counselor Number Two's control

group, and (3) total control group which indicated a combining of counselors' group.

5. Experimental Period: The time lapse from the conclusion of a Manpower training class to a common later point in time when subjects and their classmates were tested and data gathered. Because of the range in experimental periods from 6 to 18 weeks, it was necessary to mathematically convert data to a common length or equivalent experimental period in order to make an impartial evaluation on earning and income measurements used in the study. When this conversion was necessary, the researcher refers to this experimental period as the converted experimental period.

6. Counseling Services: The act of the Manpower counselors to to visit, confer, and otherwise counsel with subjects in an attempt to bring about an improved attitude toward his work situation and his total self-adjustment.

7. Job Satisfaction: "The verbal expression of an incumbents evaluation of his job. The verbal evaluation made operational by some form of attitude questionnaire or scale by means of which the incumbent rates his job on a continum of 'like-dislike' or other appropriate synonyms as 'satisfied-dissatisfied'." (16, p. 345)

8. Job Satisfaction Score: The score derived from a subject's responses to items of the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Blank Questionnaire.

9. Employee Performance: "A measure of the employees total worth. It embraces not only quantity and quality of work,

but also character, conduct and personal qualifications." (27, p. 10)

10. Employee Performance Rating Score: The score derived from the immediate supervisor's response to the behavior describing items on the Goertzel Job Success Scale.
11. Bonafide and Legitimate Jobs: Jobs held by subjects for 30 hours or more per week that have regular deductions of social security and federal withholding taxes.
12. Bonafide and Legitimate Income: Monies received from bonafide and legitimate jobs.
13. All Income: Monies received from bonafide and legitimate jobs plus any other monies received from sources such as public assistance, unemployment compensation, military disabilities and jobs in which employers were curcumventing the law by not deducting federal withholding taxes and social security payments and when employees indicated they did not plan to report the income.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

After reviewing literature pertinent to the problems of counseling the Manpower trained, the researcher had need for subdividing the review into: vocational counseling and occupational adjustment and development, demographic and general characteristics of the rural impoverished, and applicable research relevant to job satisfaction.

Counseling

A report (51, pp. 127-128) by the Secretary of Labor on Manpower Research and Training stated in regard to the need for counseling:

> If young people are to fulfill their potential for work, it is essential that, beginning early in school life, they be exposed to information about jobs of the future and the kinds of education and training these jobs require. Counseling and guidance in occupational trends and developments are also vital to mature workers who can be expected to change jobs several times during their working lives. . . .

Modern writers have also expressed the need for occupational and vocational counseling experiments to be carried out. Fullmer and Bernard (8, p. 246) pointed out this interest.

> New fields are continually opening up for counseling. What, for instance, is the best way to retrain workers who have lost their jobs as a result of automation? How should a counselor work with youngsters whose parents are chronically out of work? Research needs to be done to find the best ways of dealing with these problems.

No longer is a counselor confined to only that of pure psychological and personal counseling. Today, it is believed the counselor needs to operate in more than one direction, according to Fullmer and Bernard (8, p. 101).

> Interviews with individuals and groups to carry out *educational*, *vocational*, and *personal* guidance should be conducted expertly. These interviews should contribute to the individual's self-understanding and lead to the perception of choice between alternative actions. The counselor must be aware of the futility of instruction [telling the individual what to do]: he must understand that present conditions are an outcome of past growth processes and that future growth demands not only direction but time to test alternatives and practice them. The counselor must, in a sense, travel a little of the distance with the counselee.

Fullmer and Bernard (8, p. 102) had this to say about vocational guidance.

> [It] is influenced by many forces. It should be remembered that while most of us go to work because we have to, we are strongly motivated in our vocational choice by what persons significant in our lives value as important and worthwhile. . . . In vocational guidance the counselor will encounter a wide variety of more complicated and subtle situations.

But what is meant by counseling? The term counseling takes on various meanings to different persons. Leona Tyler (40, p. 1) expressed this dilemma when she said,

> Counseling is one of those words that everybody understands but no two people seem to understand in precisely the same way. It is a part of our everyday language, and the activity it represents is a part of our everyday life.

Writers supported this same concept that counseling as a term is difficult to understand, but the term has some general commonalities. This researcher will demonstrate this by citing definitions by various writers on this subject. Tyler (40, p. 12) said,

> Let us use counseling to refer to a helping process the aim of which is not to change the person but to enable him to utilize the resources he now has for coping with life. The

> outcome we would then expect from counseling is that the client do something, take some constructive action on his own behalf.

Another writer, Cara Kasius (15, p. 17) had this to say about counseling,

> Counseling as a specialized service aims to provide guidance and support to persons who have encountered some problems in social functioning or who are facing new life situations that require a shift in their roles and responsibilities. Counseling services are available to persons who have such diverse problems as marital conflict, behavior difficulties of children, unemployment, delinquency, alcoholism, and so forth. They also provide on a preventive basis to persons who are seeking guidance before critical problems arise. Both types of counseling [preventive and after-the-fact] are given by persons trained in any one of a number of professional fields.

Kasius goes on to say that although there appears to be no common denominator in various counseling efforts, but in actuality there is. She brings this to the front by saying (15, p. 17),

> . . .Although specialized knowledge is essential for counseling in a particular field, it constitutes only a part of the counselor's equipment. In addition, he must have sufficient psychological knowledge to be able to understand the emotional needs and reactions of the person seeking help or guidance. Both social and psychological factors in the individual's adjustment problems must be understood and, in the counseling process, these two components must be appropriately related to each other.

Smith (35, p. 156) defined counseling as:

> . . .essentially a process in which the counselor assists the counselee to make interpretions of facts relating to a choice, plan or adjustment which he needs to make.

All of these definitions have stressed the helping relationship aspect of couseling. Often the relationship is on a one to one or a face to face relationship. Williamson and Foley (57, p. 192) expressed this view in their definition of counseling,

> Counseling has been defined as a face-to-face situation in which, by reason of training, skill or confidence vested in

> him by the other, one person helps the second person to face, perceive, clarify, solve, and resolve adjustment problems.

Wrenn (58, p. 59) expressed a similar view when he wrote:

> Counseling is a personal and dynamic relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration for each other to the end that the younger, or less mature, or more troubled of the two is aided to a self-determined resolution of his problems.

Some definitions of counseling do not indicate the relative dominance of the counselor and the client in the counseling process. Rogers' (31) definition of counseling simply stated:

> The process by which the structure of the self is relaxed in the safety of the relationship with the therapist, and previously denied experiences are perceived and then integrated into an altered self.

Another definition where the relationship of the client and the counselor is not stressed would be, as Shoben (34, p. 127) put it,

> . . .a warm, permissive, safe, understanding, but limited social relationship within which therapist and patient discuss the affective behavior of the latter, including his ways of dealing with his emotionally toned needs and the situations that give rise to them.

Arbuckle (1, p. 139) defined counseling in terms of what it is and what it is not:

> Counseling, then, is a process which takes place because of the relationship between two people. It is in the uniqueness of this relationship that the individual called the client begins to see things that he never saw before, begins to realize strengths that he never thought he had, so that he can see and accept the unpleasant, and begins gradually to see a new and brighter world. The magic that causes this is indeed magic, but it is not supernatural. It is not to be found in a set of secret formulae and techniques, but rather in the rare experience the client has in finding someone secure and capable enough to accept him completely and without question as he is, and thus to help him to learn, because now he has reason to learn new and better things.

Fullmer and Bernard (8, p. 118) contended that the mass information sources and data-processing methods can free the counselor to perform his unique function of helping individuals understand themselves, their motives, and their goals. They said this unique function is the three I's -- Interrupt, Intervene, and Influence.

> . . .The counselor is faced with doing something, with initiating active behavior change. How is this to be done? The counselor must interrupt self-defeating behavior patterns, intervene in the life process of the individual, and influence the direction and quality of growth and development.

Keller (17, p. 141) in writing about vocational and educational guidance, had this to say about vocational guidance:

> Some good counselors say that there is no such thing as vocational guidance, there is just guidance--for life. Others say that all guidance is vocational guidance because education contributes to success and happiness in a vocation.

According to Super (37, p. 8) counseling psychology transcended from vocational guidance and largely the work of Frank Parsons in Boston. Large-scale unemployment during the economic depression of the 1930's highlighted vocational guidance as an educational function with the underlying goal to get workers back into the active labor force (37, pp. 8-9). During the 1930's another movement gathered force, this one under the auspicies of clinical psychology, namely, an interest in psychotherapy. This interest arose in part by the influence of Carl Rogers' work. Nevertheless it had this result:

> . . .It has made vocational counselors, whether psycholologists or otherwise, more aware of the people rather than problems, of the fact that problems of adjustment in one aspect of living have effects on other aspects of life, and of the complexity of the processes counseling concerning

> any type of individual adjustment, whether in the field of occupation, of group living, or of personal values (37, p. 9).

All of this has emerged into a new field called counseling psychology.

> . . .While it includes vocational guidance, it goes beyond it to deal with the person as a person, attempting to help him with all types of life adjustments. Its underlying principle is that it is the adjusting individual who needs help, rather than merely an occupational, marital, or personal problem which needs solution. However, counseling psychology recognizes, unlike some therapeutic approaches, that the adjusting individual lives in a real world in which situational as well as attitudinal problems are encountered, and hence it uses aptitude tests, occupational information, exploratory activities, and structured situations as well as therapeutic interviews (37, p. 9)

One writer is critical of the part professional psychometrists, clinical psychologists, and counseling psychologists have played in the vocational counseling role. Hoppock (12, p. 108) said that these professionals are well trained to deal with the subjective factors, but not the "reality considerations." Hoppock states:

> There is fantasy in the belief that good vocational counseling can be provided by psychologists who know all about values and emotions and interests and capacities and who are not equally competnet in the area of occupational information. What we now have in vocational counseling is far too many psychologists who regard placement as a dirty word and any direct contact with the employment market as degrading. If we are not someday to be charged with quakcery, we should have in all vocational counseling services as we have persons who are skilled in psychology, or we should have a new breed of counselor whose training, experience, and competence in economics, in occupational information, and in placement equals his training, experience, and competence in psychology, in psychometrics, and in psychotherapy.
>
> One of the most important uses of occupational information in counseling is in helping the client to test the reality of his choice against all the pertinent, known facts about the demand for workers, the qualifications for employment,

and the ways in which the occupation may or may not meet the needs of the client if he is able to get and hold a job.

Hoppock (12, pp. 110-112) discussed what he calls "A Composite Theory for Counselors" in regard to summaries of theories of vocational choice and development and how the counselor can help the person to his job. They are:

1. Occupations are chosen to meet needs.
2. The occupation that we choose is the one that we believe will best meet the needs that most concern us.
3. Needs may be intellectually perceived, or they may be only vaguely felt as attractions which draw us in certain directions. In either case, they may influence choices.
4. Vocational development begins when we first become aware that an occupation can help to meet our needs.
5. Vocational development progresses and occupational choice improves as we become better able to anticipate how well a prospective occupation will meet our needs. Our capacity thus to anticipate depends upon our knowledge to ourselves, our knowledge of occupations, and our ability to think clearly.
6. Information about ourselves affects occupational choice by helping us to recognize what we want and by helping us to anticipate whether or not we will be successful in collecting what the contemplated occupation offers us.
7. Information about occupations affect occupational choice by helping us to discover the occupations that may meet our needs and by helping us to anticipate how well satisfied we may hope to be in one occupation compared with another.
8. Job satisfaction depends upon the extent to which the job that we hold meets the needs that we feel it should meet. The degree of satisfaction is determined by the ratio between what we have and what we want.
9. Satisfaction can result from a job which meets our needs today or from a job which promises to meet them in the future.

10. Occupational choice is always subject to change when we believe that a change will better meet our needs.

The most recent reports on Education and Training by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (47, pp. 22-23) included a section on guidance and counseling. It stated:

> Counselors are in short supply everywhere, especially those who can react with understanding, resourcefulness, and firmness to the personal problems of manpower trainees. Too often, individuals trained as school counselors are unfamiliar with the backgrounds and outlook of trainees, and may offer seemingly irrelevant or unrealistic solutions. Or they may be unfamiliar with the battery of community resources which could be used to help trainees. Recruitment of persons well-suited to the job is often difficult, and such people are in heavy demand in other programs as well...
>
> Putting counselors as well as other key project personnel on an annual contract would also help to reduce turnover and improve effectiveness.
>
> In-service training could be used to prepare counsleors for the types of problems generated by manpower trainees, and to familiarize them with the remedial resources which the community offers...
>
> Experimentation with counselor aides in experimental and demonstration projects is now being evaluated with a view to hiring more of them. Such aides are frequently recruited from peer groups of the trainees. They are often able to establish rapport, to know when action is required, and to decide what type of action would be most effective.

The same report (47, p. 23) goes on to say that "adults, especially disadvantaged adults, have a wide range of need for social services than the ordinary adolescent in school." The report also stated:

> An important function of the Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System is the identification and organization of community resources needs to solve the problems of manpower trainees. In some communities the resources are sufficient to provide for the trainees' needs, once it is clear that

> the needs of manpower trainees are a legitimate charge on local resources. Counselors and other project staff need only to be in close contact with trainees to spot problems and help the trainee recognize and accept his need for assistance.

Research completed for the Department of Labor (52, p. 71) on attitudes and motives of MDTA trained demonstrated the complexity of working with these people.

> The analysis of the data so far from...studies shows the complexity of the motivational issues involved in the study of manpower trainees. Many complicated processes underlie words like "alienated," "unmotivated," and "demoralized." In attempting to untangle these problems, it is helpful to distinguish between two different levels of motivation. The more basic level reflects personality characteristics which are more likely to be residues of the trainees' disadvantaged past. The second level represents the trainees' reactions to their present social realities. It may be important to emphasize this second level, since it is often forgotten in our current concern with "cultural deprivation" and "inadequate socialization."

Other research by the Department of Labor (52, p. 73) indicated there are many unanswered questions about motivation, but some tentative answers are emerging.

> . . . The trainees do not appear to be "alienated," nor do they seem to be rejecting American goals, values, and aspirations. These areas were stressed in the research, and most of the findings suggest that the trainees do aspire to "middle class" values. They do believe that success comes from ability, hard work, and initiative. This appears to be true for both the culturally disadvantaged trainees in the JOBS Project and for the national sample of trainees. . . . When asked to comment on the unemployment problem, more trainees blamed unemployment on the unwillingness to work than on the lack of jobs, bad luck, or discrimination.
>
> The data suggest that the trainees doubt that the "American way" applies to them. In an abstract sense, they feel that success depends on planning and hard work, but they are not certain that they are the masters of their own fate. . . .

Since little or no information is available as such on counseling MDTA graduates, a look at counseling employees or industrial counseling is in order. Considerable information is available on counseling in business and industry as well as in counseling employees. Vernon, in writing on counseling in business and industry, said:

> It is being done to a limited extent, and is frequently mentioned by writers on personnel and industrial relations as one of the activities necessary to a well-rounded personnel program. Nevertheless, acceptance of the idea of counseling as a legitimate and desirable personnel function in a business organization is by no means universal or even widespread. (53, pp. 256-257)

Vernon goes on to indicate interest in personnel counseling is growing because of significant and well-publicized experiments in the field. The strong educational forces at work in later years will cause greater acceptance of counseling. In addition, a greater number of trained counselors will make themselves available for this type of work.

Counseling as an aid to worker adjustment is discussed by Bowler and Dawson who had this to say:

> The first few weeks are usually critical ones of the new employee. It is a period of adjustment. The new worker is more or less gradually getting his bearings. If supervision is of high quality during this crucial period, the worker will be developing good work habits that are later to become valuable skills. Because the individual develops attitudes along with work habits, his morale should be kept at a high level during the adjustment period.
>
> The practice of dumping green workers onto an overworked or ill-tempered foremen is all too common and usually results in disillusionment and dissatisfaction for both. It is of vital importance, therefore, that supervision be adequate, understanding and sincere. The counselor, through contact with the foreman and the worker, can learn the

> attitude of each toward the other. Some skillful guiding, suggesting, and maneuvering may be necessary to keep the process functioning harmoniously (3, p. 126).

The counselor's prime responsibility is to lend an attentive, friendly ear to those who have problems, indicated Bowler and Dawson.

Characteristics of the Rural Impoverished

This study is concerned with general socioeconomic conditions of the rural population in Eastern Oklahoma. The persons who will receive counseling after MDTA training are generally of the rural impoverished sector considering their incomes, level of living, and attitudes toward life.

Consider, for example, public assistance in two of the counties in Eastern Oklahoma, Adair and LeFlore, where the counselors on the project will carry out their counseling activities in an attempt to improve the client's attitude toward the world of work and hence toward his job satisfaction. The Monthly Bulletin of the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare (24) for January, 1968, revealed that Adair County with a population of 14,000 persons had approximately 4,000 persons receiving the benefits of old age assistance, aid to families with dependent children, aid to the blind, aid to the disabled or general assistance. The total public assistance expenditures for January, 1968, represented about 200,000 dollars in Adair County. LeFlore County with a population of 32, 000 had about 6,000 persons receiving public assistance benefits and a welfare bill of 315,000 dollars. Old age assistance and aid to families with dependent children accounts for about 80 percent of the public assistance effort.

Oklahoma attempts to finance its public and general assistance largely from sales tax receipts. For the month of January, 1968, Adair County accounted for 13,000 Sales tax dollars of the 200,000 dollars they spent for public assistance; and LeFlore accounted for 35,000 dollars of the 315,000 dollars they spent (24). As shown in Table I,

TABLE I

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE AND FAMILY INCOME OF OKLAHOMA AND SELECTED COUNTIES IN 1960 BY CENSUS DATA*

			Family Income		
State or County	Unemployment Rate	Non-Worker Ratio**	Median Income	Percent with Income	
	Percent			Under 3,000	Over 10,000
Oklahoma	4.4	1.73	4,620	31.0	10.1
Oklahoma Co.	3.1	1.43	5,708	17.5	14.8
Tulsa Co.	4.5	1.50	5,995	17.2	16.9
Adair Co.	7.3	3.40	1,919	69.3	1.5
Delaware Co.	5.5	2.63	2,353	62.3	2.9
Cherokee Co.	6.2	2.65	2,657	55.8	5.1
Wagoner Co.	6.2	2.39	3,271	46.6	4.7
Mayes Co.	6.2	2.27	3,468	44.4	5.8
Sequoyah Co.	8.7	2.91	2,492	58.1	3.2
Haskell Co.	7.7	2.63	2,247	65.1	2.2
LeFlore Co.	9.0	2.53	2,648	56.5	3.2

*See Selected Bibliography (41).

**Ratio of persons not in the labor force (including children under 14) to labor force.

unemployment in these counties in 1960 was 7.3 percent for Adair cnd 9.0 percent for LeFlore. Census data also show that unemployment was at a higher rate for the rural wage earner than the urban person working in Tulsa, Oklahoma or Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Recent Oklahoma Employment Security data on unemployment are shown in Table II. Although Table I and Table II represent differing

TABLE II

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE OF OKLAHOMA AND SELECTED COUNTIES, DECEMBER, 1967*

State or County	Unemployment Rate Percent
Oklahoma	3.4
Oklahoma Co.	2.9
Tulsa (SMSA)**	2.9
Adair Co.	21.8
Delaware Co.	4.9
Cherokee Co.	9.7
Wagoner Co.	5.7
Mayes Co.	9.5
Sequoyah Co.	9.1
Haskell Co.	15.1
LeFlore Co.	9.8

*Miscellaneous publications and general information from the Employment Security Commission, Morris Leonard, Director, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

**Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area unemployment determining techniques, they are generally comparable. While unemployment for the state of Oklahoma and its two largest population counties, Oklahoma County and Tulsa County lowered, the rate of unemployment rose in most of the rural Eastern Oklahoma counties considered in Tables I and II for the seven-year period of 1960-1967.

A search of the literature was made dealing with problems of rural persons in the U.S. population sector who are poor, unemployed, underemployed, malemployed, and the like. Not only will the impoverished rural population be generally described, but the current attitudes, aspirations and philosophy of the poor will be reported.

What do we mean by rural? Those people living in Manhattan Borough, New York, are undoubtedly urban and those living on cattle ranches in the sand hills of Nebraska are unquestionably rural. But what about the subdivisions of 50 homes that lie outside the boundaries of a small city? The government and its census taking agencies have finally settled upon a general division. The Census defines rural residents as persons living in the open country or in communities of less than 2,500 people (44, p. 2). Considering this, about three in every ten persons in the United States are rural residents. The total rural population in 1965 was nearly the same as in 1960 and has been stable since 1950 (42, p. 99). This is holding at about 54 million people, of which in 1960 about 15½ million were farm residents and the balance rural non-farm. (44, p. 8)

The federal government uses an elaborate technique by which to rate persons in the United States on the basis of socioeconomic status. The rating system is an average of three criteria--occupation, educational attainment, and family income (43, pp. x-xi). Each criterion has a possible of 100 points and, therefore, can contribute 33 and one-third percent of the weighted average to the final score. For example, a college professor would get 96 on occupation, 98 on education and 94 on income (if he earned $12,000 annually) or a score of 96. But a farm laborer would score four for occupation, eight for education (assuming six years), and 17 for earnings (assuming $2,500) for an average of ten. (43, Appendixes I, III, and IV)

These Census data reports revealed all population (those employed) scored an average of 51.9. Rural farm persons had an average 28.6 percent and rural non-farm had an average of 41.1 percent, but their city cousins scored 56.4 percent. Yet, the situation is even worsened when considering Negro rural farm persons whose score was only 9.9 percent. (43, pp. 2-16).

It is estimated that the rural population will continue to hold at around 54 million people in the years to come (44, p. 3). However, statisticians account for rural farm and rural non-farm people. There has been a decrease in rural farm and an increase in rural non-farm persons. They say:

> In 1960-65, the net out-migration from farms averaged 794,000 persons per year, a somewhat smaller number than the yearly average of 1,013,000 from 1950 to 1960 (44, p. 8).

Yet, it is interesting to note that enough persons from the urban sector are interested in joining the ranks of the rural population to help keep it constant in numbers. However, the higher birth rates among rural people, 3,001 births per 1,000 rural females versus 2,269 births per 1,000 urban females in 1960, has a direct bearing upon population replenishment figures, too. (44, p. 11)

Farm people are older. There were more farm people 60-69 years of age than those 20-29 years old; whereas, persons 20-29 outnumbered those 60-69 by 80 percent in the rural non-farm population. There has been a heavy out-migration of young rural adults over the last 20 years. (44, p. 11)

As shown by the Census data, rural non-farm persons are probably in a better position socially and economically than farm people, but they share as rural people many common problems. Then the rural persons in turn share in problems common to the poor whether they come from urban or rural sectors.

Rural America contains heavy concentrations of underemployment, said the USDA Bureau of Research people:

> . . .Underemployment occurs when people earn less than their potential because their nominally full-time occupation is really only seasonal or because, when they do work, they use inefficient methods of production from which they receive little income. Underemployment can be measured by translating it into the amount of unemployment that would result in a similar loss. The unemployment equivalent of underemployment in rural America was estimated to be 2.5 million in 1960 (44, p. 3).
> Of the 2.5 million man-year of underemployment, 1.1 million was among farm residents This was 26.5 percent of the 1960 farm labor force between 20 and 64 years of age. The 1.4 million man-years among non-farm rural men and women between 20 and 64 amounted to 12 percent of this labor force (44, p. 16).

In fact those underemployment figures are very conservative. There are probably large numbers of rural women who are potential manpower to the labor force, but there are no employment opportunities available to them within range of their homes. Such persons are not included in the underemployed group (44, p. 16).

There are several types of rural poverty. There are the low-income cotton farms scattered throughout the South, resident and migratory farm laborers, American Indian and Spanish-speaking persons. Much of the rural underemployment exists among middle-age and older farm operators, whose incomes are so low as to put them in poverty. (44, p. 4)

Rural poverty may be more difficult to overcome than urban poverty.

> Hard-core rural poverty is more self-perpetuating than hard-core urban poverty because of its geographical concentrations, which affects attitudes and group efforts for entire areas. The lack of ability of the persons in poverty to help themselves extends to lack of leadership in helping to better the group (45, p. 4).

One recent report by the President's National Advisory Commission of Rural Poverty (25, p. xi) described the perplexing problems of rural poverty. Among their recommendations were that residents of all rural America have equal access to jobs, medical care, housing, education, welfare and other public services, and that our existing manpower policies, particularly the public employment services, need a thorough overhauling to deal effectively with rural unemployment and underemployment. The Commission deplored the part that the richest, most powerful nation in history compels millions of its citizens to engage in aimless wandering in search of jobs.

Psychologists and other social scientistics have studied the outlook toward life by the low-income persons. In a recent booklet by the DHEW, they discussed life conditions of the poor. Researchers have found these four general limitations (14, pp. 2-3).

> 1. Limited alternatives. The poor, of all the strata in society, have the slightest opportunity to experience varieties of social and cultural settings . . . . They rarely play roles of leadership, or fill any position calling for specialized functioning. On their jobs they confront less complex situations and have fewer, less diverse standards to meet. Socially, they seldom go beyond the borders of kinship and neighborhood groups-people very like themselves.
>
> 2. Helplessness. The position of the poor vis-a-vis society and its institutions is one of importance. They have practically no bargaining power in the working world. Unskilled and uneducated, they are the most easily replaced worker. . . . He is close to helpless even to acquire information and training which would change this situation. He has neither the knowledge nor the means to get it.
>
> 3. Deprivation. It is reasonable to suspect that this general condition, almost universally associated with poverty, is felt with particular intensity in American society. Deprivation is, after all, relative. When it is defined as a lack of resources relative to felt wants and needs, it is evident that America has one of the greatest gaps between generally accepted goals and the extent to which the lower class can realistically expect to attain them. . . . The richness of life in the rest of society is well displayed——on television, in newspapers, on billboards, in store windows, on the very streets themselves. All this, plus awareness that some people have actually succeeded in the strenuous upward move, makes the condition of the unachieving poor one of unremitting deprivation. . . . Constant awareness of their own abject status and the "failure" which it rightly or wrongly implies understandably leads to embarrassed withdrawal and isolation.
>
> 4. Insecurity. People of low income are more at the mercy of life's unpredictability than are the more affluent. Sickness, injury, loss of work, legal problems——a range of hazardous possibilities——may overwhelm anyone. But to the poor man they are especially fearful. . . . He is more likely to lose his job on short notice. An emergency expenditure of funds may mean the postponing of rent payments and the fear of eviction. He is

> unable to secure for himself and his family the regular, preventive health measures which would fend off medical emergencies. . . .

But how does the poor feel about being poor? The pathetic point is that the poor are human, have senses and feelings and even have the advantage (or disadvantage) of televisions, papers and other mass media to inform them of the other world--a way of life somewhat external to them. DHEW Researchers (14, p. 3) report the poor see "life rather unpatterned and unpredictable, a congeries of in which they have no part and over which they have no control." The alienation of the poor is graphically seen in their feelings of (14, p. 4):

> 1. Powerlessness. The objective condition of helplessness in relation to the larger social order leads naturally to the conviction that one cannot control it. The poor are widely convinced that individuals cannot influence the workings of society. Furthermore, they doubt the possibility of being able to influence their own lives. . . .
>
> 2. Meaninglessness. Powerlessness, the feeling of being used for purposes not one's own, usually is accompanied by conviction of meaninglessness. . . . He does not grasp the structure of the world in which he lives, cannot understand his place in it, and never knows what to expect from it. . . .
>
> 3. Anomie. The term "anomie" was originally coined to describe situations in which social standards have been broken down, or have no influence upon behavior. It has subsequently been pointed out that this normless condition is a probable result of the failure of prescribed behavior to lead one to expected goals. The life view of individuals caught in such a discrepant situation is likely to be cynical, perhaps fatalistic. For example, the poor man who is taught in many ways that economic success is the most desirable thing in life-and then is barred from legitimate means of achieving it-may come to expect that illegal behavior is neccessary to reach approved goals. The situation, moreover, induces people to believe in luck. . . .
>
> 4. Isolation. More than any other segment of society, the very lowest economic stratum is socially isolated. The poor man not only fails to comprehend society or his community, he is out of touch with it. . . . Nor do

> the poor associate among themselves more than minimally. Experiencing separation from society and each other, it is natural for them to feel alone and detached.

Dr. Timken (38, p. 2), Director of Adult Basic Education in Oklahoma, cited the needs of this rural state in regard to continuing education.

> Oklahoma has over 30 percent of their population with less than high school completion also 15 percent with less than grade school completion, age range 25 years or more. Approximately one out of every three students now entering first grade will not graduate from high school. This promises a continuing educational level problem. The lack of formal schooling has been found to be a major deterrent in permanency of employment, understanding participation as a citizen, parenthoold, health, financial and other related areas of good living.

Dr. Timken (38, pp.2-3) stated that the philosophy held by adult educators and leaders is very important and the philosophy that they might accept are made in the following points: (1) That desirable change can only be brought about by participative learning; (2) That education is their best investment of money, effort and time for greater income, personal and family membership effectiveness, personal happiness, satisfaction, and effective expression; (3) That their educational plan should be arrived at by mutual planning, and (4) That each adult student be identified with a continued learning center and a personal education plan.

One economist, Dale E. Hathaway (11, p. 83), believes solutions are bound up largely in the education of youth. He stated that the "proportion of rural-farm high school graduates who attend college is much lower than that of nonfarm high school graduates." His specific solution of the problem of education of the youth so that they might become productive adults is (11, p. 117):

> Rural areas would be one of the major beneficiaries of a federal program to aid primary and secondary education. Presumably, such a program would be financed by general tax revenues, which are bases largely upon the ability to pay. On these bases or anything like them, rural areas have been in the forefront of those opposing federal aid to education, although their opposition has been largely upon ideological rather than economic grounds.

So far we have dealt with some of the demographic problems of the rural adult in his impovishment situation. A new term has recently appeared in the literature. It is malemployment--a term for unemployment and underployment, coined by Herbert Gans (9). This term so aptly describes the work condition that some of these rural people have to work in.

> The problem is best described as malemployment, which refers to any job that does not provide adequate rewards in ways, working conditions, job security, prestige and the like.
>
> Malemployment includes part-time and seasonal work, underpaid, dead-end, insecure, dirty and despised jobs; jobs that limit a woker's constitutional rights and the use of his skills, jobs that require him to labor under physically, socially and emotionally harmful conditions, as well as jobs that do not offer the level of job satisfaction considered adequate by society.

Research Relevant to Job Satisfaction

The writer attempted to find research that would equate job satisfaction and counseling, especially where the act of counseling was providing a stimulus (independent variable) and measurement by a job satisfaction scale that would be the dependent variable. At the time of printing this report, no such direct reference could be found. However, counseling like learning is often thought of as bringing about a change in behavior, attitudes or values. To this end, research is reported in support of the hypothesis of this study that counseling can bring about an improvement in job satisfaction.

Katzell (16) stated a theoretical framework for values gained by job-related activities. He says:

> Values and importance develop and change on the basis of expereince. The value magnitude and intensity (importance) of a particular kind of stimulus may be changed through (1) satiation with the stimulus, (2) deprivation of the stimulus, (3) stimulus with another stimulus of high or low value, or (5) inducing a person to make a decision or commitment that is inconsistent with one of his values.
>
> Job characteristics or incentives form a hierarchy with respect to the intensity of their values; i.e., some of the incentives are potent determiners of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, whereas, the presence or absence of others is relatively inconsequential. However, in accordnace with the aforementioned principles of satiation and deprivation, as important values are attained but initally less important ones remain unfulfilled, the intensities shift so that the latter become relatively more potent determiners of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Moreover, those values which are originally most intense have to do with survival and safety, whereas those which are originally least intense are concerned with esteem and self-actualization.

These are Maslow's (21) hierarchy of needs: (1) the physiological needs, (2) the safety needs, (3) the need for belongingness and love, (4) the need for importance, respect, self-esteem, independence, (5) the need for information, (6) the need for understanding, (7) the need for beauty, and (8) the need for self-actualization.

If counseling can bring about an expected change in job-related experiences, then counseling should affect job safisfaction in a positive manner as the basic or lower level needs are met. Katzell (16) supported this theory when he said:

> One's values may be expected to change as a function of various job-related experiences. Of special interest in the hypothesized reduction in intensity of initially less important values. The operation of these trends is such that social and self-actualizing values would remain weak unless the more basic values for security and safety were fulfilled through work or elsewhere in the individuals life.

Kuhlen (19) studied needs, perceived need satisfaction opportunities, and satisfaction with occupation. He tested 203 teachers and hypothesized that those individuals whose measured needs are relatively stronger than the potential of the occupation for satisfying those needs (as the perceive this potential) will tend to be frustrated and hence to be less well satisfied with their occupation.

Turner and Lawrence (39) conducted an investigation of industrial jobs and the worker. They developed a method of measuring job attributes, calling it "requisite task attribute" or RTA and it measured characteristics of the job as the amount of variety, autonomy, responsibility, and inter-action with others. They hypothesized that RTA will be high when job satisfaction is high and that RTA Index scores will be high when worker attendance (low absenteeism) is high. They implenmented their measuring method in a varied sample of industrial jobs drawn from eleven industries (39, pp. v-vii).

Turner and Lawrence (39, pp. 48-49) found that RTA Index had a strong influence on employee attendance, but RTA Index did not influence the sample population on job satisfaction or "there was significant association between Job Satisfaction and RTA Index scores."

Turner and Lawrence (39, p. ix) look at data supporting "Town" (or rural) and "City" subcultures. They found that the overall hypothesis of greater satisfaction with high RTA jobs was confirmed only for town (or rural) workers. In fact this proved negatively correlated with City group. The researchers concluded that town or rural workers tend to react positively to more complex work, i.e., work requiring the exercise of greater skill and the acceptance of more responsibility.

Champagne and King (6) studied the job satisfaction factors among underpriviledged workers. They listed after reviewing the literature 16 motivation facts they felt to represent the area investigated; among these were pay, liking the job, fear of being fired, chance for raise, etc. Five hundred and thirteen MDTA trainees scored themselves by selecting only one of the 16 factors that most applied to him or her. A pretest and posttest yielded a Pearson r of .98 which indicated a high degree of temporal stability. The most interesting part of this study was that in all cases (by sub-samples such as sex, ethnic and economic area) the intrinsic factors of duty and satisfaction are generally ranker higher that the extrinsic factors of pay, praise, or respect. In all cases, respect or praise from superiors was more important than from peer group. The fear of job severance or reprimand was very low, relatively speaking, indicating to some extent that a fear-inducing, non-employee-oriented management will not be maximally effective with workers similar to those in the study.

A study by Spitzer (36) demonstrated that job satisfaction, as measured by the Brayfield-Rothe Blank, was not correlated to job performances, as measured from records of supervisors from a first line aeronautical corporation. However, as he had predicated, job satisfaction was highly significant to goal-attainment when measured by the Job Aspects Questionnaire.

Meisner (22, pp. 141-147) administered the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Blank to detect differences in how Neighborhood Youth Corp high school students felt toward their jobs. Some students were assigned to teaching-related job tasks while others were assigned to service-related job tasks. Meisner, like Brayfield and Rothe (4) who had validated their instrument on significant differences between "Personnel" and "Non-Personnel" groups, hypothesized that those students with the teaching-related jobs would have significantly higher scores. This Meisner (22) found to be true at the .05 level using an analysis of varience technique. Meisner also tested for a relationship between productivity and job satisfaction. The productivity was by supervisor rating of the trainee. When tested it yielded a nonsignificant t-test socre.

Vroom (54, pp. 100-105) gives a general picture of a satisfying work role. Job satisfaction results from the interaction between the worker possessed values and needs that may or may not fulfill his job activities. The degree to which his needs are met determines the level of satisfaction. Job satisfaction is not a single dimension but rather a complex set of variables.

Research in job satisfaction has focused on the determinants of job satisfaction and job behavior measured by employer rating or production output. According to Robinson and Conners (27) research has been somewhat controversial on productivity and job satisfaction. They stated:

> As used by most researchers in this field, productivity is synonymous with performance, accomplishment, achievement and success. The general consensus for several years favors the conclusion that job satisfaction and productivity are not related in a positive, significant way.

Numerous references and studies relating to job satisfaction were found among the social science literature. However, it is confined largely to the upper socio-economic sector of the American work force. For example, a review of job satisfaction researchers in 1962 by

Robinson and Connors (28) showed that education was in the limelight and nearly one-third of all studies were concerned with satisfation of teachers alone. Very few were concerned with people doing manual skills and labor.

In 1963, the emphasis of job satisfaction researches were on teachers. Robinson and Connors (29) reported that over 40 percent of the studies and discussion-type articles surveyed that year related to teachers and their job satisfaction or morale. Again, the emphasis on management personnel, physiologists, nurses, college faculties and other high esteem jobs were more in view than studies relating to the lower echolon jobs.

The researcher reviewed job satisfaction researches of recent years from the Personnel and Guidance Journal on who was being studied and the results of such studies published. For example, in 1967 the Personnel and Guidance Journal (25) carried six articles listed under the caption of occupational adjustment. However, four of them related to the disadvantaged, namely, "The Fate of School Dropouts in the Marines," "The Self-concept of Welfare Recipients," "Job Satisfaction Factors among Underpriviledged Workers," and "Job Satisfaction of Blue-collar Workers." The other two dealt with women teacher career commitment and counselors' job activities. This study falls in line with the concept of measuring job satisfaction among workers of the less elite occupational strata.

In 1964 Lipsitz (20) studied the work life and political attitudes of 41 manual workers. He found that those workers with the most repetitive and least interesting jobs were the most dissatisfied, alientated, and politically radical. His study gives impetus to this study's approach that counseling should bring about higher job satisfaction since it should improve mental health and outlook on life.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This research was conducted under a grant from the U. S. Office of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bureau of Research. The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of on-the-job counseling upon job satisfaction, employee performance, training efficiency and employability. In this chapter the researcher will present: (1) A discussion of the counseling; (2) The design of the experiment; (3) The sample groups and their treatment; (4) Data collection techniques; (5) A description of the instruments; and (6) A discussion of statistical procedures.

The Counseling

The counseling treatment was administered by two counselors, Mr. Harry J. Hoerner, principal investigator (referred to as Counselor Number One), and Mr. Glen T. Dunkin (referred to as Counselor Number Two). The two counselors administered client-centered counseling to a random sample from a selected population of MDTA trained individuals after they had completed their retraining and were prepared to enter the world of work. The underlying objective of the counseling technique was to change attitudes of the worker so that he would be more responsible to his work, to himself, and to his dependents. It was the goal of the counselor to aid the worker in first finding work suitable to his own views and that for which he had been trained by MDTA. If no work could be found directly applicable to his training, then the counselor would encourage the worker to take work suitable to meet his financial obligations.

After work was obtained, the counselor would encourage the worker to be satisfied and content with his work--thus improving his job satisfaction, performance on-the-job and his general employability. If the work was unsuitable for the subject, then the counselor would assist the worker in finding new employment that would be more suitable to him.

Specifically, the counselors planned to use the following procedure in their counseling process with the clients:

1. Establish a "warm and friendly relationship" with the worker;
2. Discuss work attitudes affecting job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction;
3. Supply information relating to these attitudes;
4. On subsequent contacts, recheck attitudes and degree of job satisfaction, and supply new information;
5. Discuss dissatisfactions and/or alienations with both the employee and employer with the counselor serving as mediator between the two;
6. Discuss with the worker his relationship to and satisfaction with fellow employees and supervisors;
7. When indicated the counselor will discuss work attitudes, relationships and satisfactions with the worker and his family; and,

8. During later sessions increased emphasis will be placed on the importance of the world of work, need for continuing employment, and striving for a more satisfying job satisfaction.

The counselors had at their disposal consultation services from a number of individuals and agencies. Acting as consultants to the project were: Dr. Clayton A. Morgan, Associate Professor of Psychology, Vocational Rehabilitation Counseling Training Program; Dr. Kenneth D. Sandvold, Associate Professor of Psychology; and, Dr. Norman E. Wilson, Assistant Professor of Education Psychology, all of Oklahoma State University's staff. Members of the staff from the Manpower Development and Training Division of the State Department of Vocational-Technical Education, State of Oklahoma also acted as consultants. Cooperating with the project were the various officials of the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission in Oklahoma City and their local offices where the counselors were carrying out their activities. The Oklahoma Public Welfare Commission county offices gave their support and cooperation to the project.

Therefore, the counseling was a concerted effort by a number of persons and individuals to help the treatment group to adapt more successfully to their work situation.

Design

The design was a pure experimental type in that a selected population was random sampled into two experimental groups--the treatment group and the control group. Mouly (23, pp. 359-360) stated in regard to experimentation that the experimental type is:

> . . . undoubtedly the most scientifically sophisticated research method. It is a refined technique capable of providing precise answers to precise problems.

Mouly cautioned that if an experiment is to provide dependable answers, it must be self-contained. In order to do this, the experiment must comply with three basic and interrelated conditions--control, randomization, and replication. Since control of all extraneous factors operating in the situation is impossible, the researcher found it necessary to randomly select subjects into the experimental and control group to neutralize the effects of whatever variables had not been adequately controlled.

Kerlinger (18, p. 303) is very favorable toward the experimental group-control group randomized subjects design:

$$\boxed{R} \quad \begin{array}{ccl} X & Y & \text{(Experimental)} \\ \hline (\sim X) & Y & \text{(Control)} \end{array}$$

Design One

He states that the above design and its variants with more than two groups are the "best" designs available for most experimental purposes in education. The $\boxed{R}$ placed before the paradigm indicates that subjects have been randomly assigned to the experimental group (top line) and the control group (bottom line). The X is treatment, (~X) is no treatment or control, and Y is the observation. Theoretically, all possible independent variables are controlled. Kerlinger contends that if enough subjects are included in the experiment to give the principle of randomization a chance to operate, then we have powerful control indeed. In other words, the claims of internal validity are rather well satisfied. External validity can best be established by replication of the experiment with the hypothesized relation holding up in each experiment.

One design of the experiment for this study was of the type discussed above (Design One). It took the total selected population and randomly stratified one-half the selected population into the experimental (treatment) group and the other one-half into the control group by counselor and by MDTA class.

In this study two counselors each worked with individuals from four MDTA classes assigned to them. A basic assumption was that the two counselors would counsel nearly alike, since they frequently held conferences (about every two to three weeks during a five month period) to coordinate their counseling techniques and discuss clients' cases with each other. However, logical consideration lead the researcher to believe that it was impossible for the two counselors to work exactly alike in view of counseling being such a personal relationship between counselor and counselee.

Another problem developed in that the two counselors were each working with subjects who were perhaps from somewhat different populations, even though nearly all subjects suffered chronic underemployment or unemployment syndrones. Subjects followed by Counselor Number One were largely Caucasian (91 percent), and were living in counties with 10 to 15 percent unemployment rates. These subjects had also been trained in Manpower programs associated with mining occupations. Whereas, subjects followed by Counselor Number Two were 52 percent Caucasian, 48 percent non-white, resided in counties having upwards to 22 percent unemployment rates and had received Manpower training in mechanics and construction jobs.

Therefore, the researcher decided to examine differences by counselor groups only *if* significant differences were obtained by total counselors' groups. It was deemed necessary to have an additional design as follows:

$$\text{Counselor No. 1} \quad \boxed{R} \quad \frac{X \qquad\qquad\qquad Y}{(\,X) \qquad\qquad\qquad Y} \begin{array}{l}\text{(Experimental)}\\ \text{(Control)}\end{array}$$

$$\text{Counselor No. 2} \quad \boxed{R} \quad \frac{X \qquad\qquad\qquad Y}{(\,X) \qquad\qquad\qquad Y} \begin{array}{l}\text{(Experimental)}\\ \text{(Control)}\end{array}$$

Design Two

Design Two allowed the researcher to further examine the effect of counseling by Counselor Number One and by Counselor Number Two when significance was obtained overall. This was not meant in any manner to compare the effectiveness of one counselor to the other, but rather to observe significant results by both counselors when it was obtained overall.

Design One was considered by the researcher the stronger of the two designs since it allowed for generalizability to similar Manpower trained persons (rural impoverished individuals) from similar situations and persons receiving similar counseling (client-centered, nondirective type).

The Sample Groups and Their Treatment

The experimental groups were drawn from selected MDTA classes operating in Oklahoma during the latter part of 1967 and early 1968 as shown in Table III. Classes were selected inasmuch as these were ones that had a degree of proximity that allowed each counselor to work with clients confined to about a 50 mile radius, and, these were the classes that officials from Oklahoma Manpower Development and

TABLE III

MDTA CLASSES USED IN STUDY BY DATES, DURATION, AND LOCATION

Class Title	Dates of Class	Duration of Class	Location of Class
1. Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 1	12/4/67-2/16/68	10 weeks	Poteau, Oklahoma
2. Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 2	12/4/67-2/16/68	10 weeks	Poteau, Oklahoma
3. Mining Machine Operators "Entry" Section 3	2/19/68-4/26/68	10 weeks	Poteau, Oklahoma
4. Repairmen, Mine Machines "Entry"	12/4/67-7/7/68	26 weeks	Poteau, Oklahoma
5. Bulldozer Operator	9/18/67-2/2/68	20 weeks	Kenwood, Oklahoma
6. Welder, Combination "Entry"	11/13/67-3/29/68	20 weeks	Stilwell, Oklahoma
7. Maintenance Mechanic, Farm "Entry"	2/5/68-5/10/68	14 weeks	Fort Gibson, Oklahoma
8. Tractor and Implement Repairmen "Entry"	11/6/67-5/3/68	26 weeks	Muskogee, Oklahoma

Training believed to be greatly in need of this type of counseling service. The location of the Oklahoma counties where counselors worked is shown in Figure 1.

The two counselors worked on the project one-half time during the months of February, March, April, and May, 1968 and full-time during June and July, 1968. During the first several months, the counselors visited their assigned MDTA classes for the purposes of: (1) gaining rapport with class members and orienting them to the follow-up, (2)

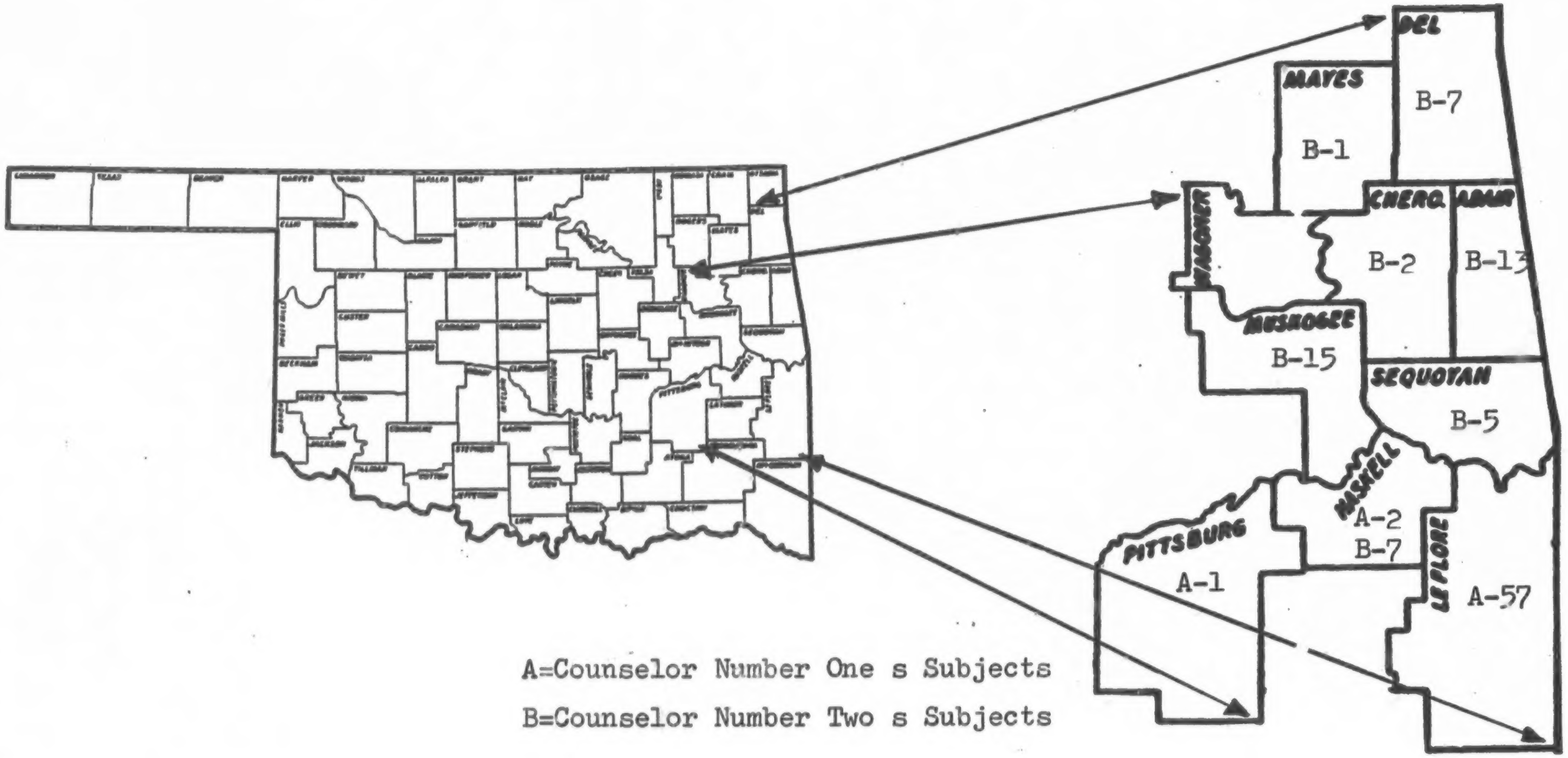
DEL
B-7
MAYES
B-1
CHERO.
B-2
ADAIR
B-13
WAGONER
MUSKOGEE
B-15
SEQUOYAH
B-5
HASKELL
A-2
B-7
PITTSBURG
A-1
LE FLORE
A-57
A=Counselor Number One s Subjects
B=Counselor Number Two s Subjects

Figure 1. County Residence of Subjects Used in Study

checking attendance records and drawing random samples of those persons who completed 50 percent of the training when the class instruction was about 60 to 70 percent completed, and (3) explaining the counseling project and its purposes to Manpower instructors, administrators, and Employment Securities officials. During the months of April and May, trainees began to terminate and graduate from MDTA classes, whereupon the counselors started visiting those subjects who had been selected into treatment groups.

The counselors attempted to contact and counsel with each subject in the treatment group four to seven times, depending upon how well the client was doing occupationally.

Table IV shows the assignment of subjects to counselors and experimental group by class. Only class members who completed 50 percent or more of their Manpower class instruction qualified as subjects for the experiment and were used in the study. Those placed in the treatment group received the benefits of on-the-job counseling, or if they were unemployed the counselors would work with the client and add encouragement to his taking work. The primary purpose was to provide counseling services to those in the treatment group that would assist them in getting a job, to hold it successfully, and to make normal occupational advancement.

Those in the control group received no counseling services. They were not contacted by the counselor until near the end of the experimental period when similar data were collected on both control and treatment groups.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF TRAINEES IN CLASSES, NUMBER QUALIFYING FOR STUDY, AND NUMBER RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS BY MDTA CLASS AND BY COUNSELOR

MDTA Class Titles	Number of Trainees in MDTA classes	Number Qualifying for Study	Treatment Group	Number in Control Group
Counselor Number One				
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 1	20	15	8	7
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 2	20	20	10	10
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 3	20	17	9	8
Repairmen, Mine Machines "Entry"	15	15	7	8
TOTALS	75	67	34	33
Counselor Number Two				
Bulldozer Operator	15	15	7	8
Welder, Combination "Entry"	20	18	9	9
Maintenance Mechanic, Farm "Entry"	15	15	7	8
Tractor and Implement Repairmen "Entry"	20	13	7	6
TOTALS	70	61	30	31
GRAND TOTALS	145	128	64	64

The experimental period, as shown in Table V, was the length of time from the end of the MDTA classroom instruction to the data collection time when counseling services were also terminated. Experimental periods for the eight classes ranged from 6 weeks to 18 weeks in length and are shown in Table V. However, a particular "treated" subject could have received counseling services longer than the experimental period dictated since he received counseling as soon as he terminated from training. Likewise, if a subject in the control group terminated early, his experimental period started at his termination and ended when data were collected on his class as a whole. The class with only a six weeks experimental period had only four members who completed the instruction program, and therefore, the experimental period was lengthened for seven members of the class.

Not all of the classes began and ended at the same time. The counselors elected to close out a particular class (collect all the data) to fit their total counseling and data collection schedules.

Table V shows the number of subjects upon which data were collected. There were a total of nine subjects dropped from the treatment group and nine from the control group for the following reasons: (1) Twelve subjects moved away from the area thus making counseling, follow-up and/or collection of data impractical; (2) Two subjects were believed to be in the area, but could not be contacted; (3) One subject was injured seriously in an automobile accident shortly after training; (4) One subject was classified 95 percent medically disabled and went on public welfare assistance; (5) One subject joined the Armed Forces shortly after training; and

TABLE V

MINIMUM DURATION OF EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD AND NUMBER OF SUBJECTS USED IN STUDY BY MDTA CLASS AND COUNSELOR

Class Titles	Minimum Duration of Experimental Period (weeks)	Number Used in Study--Treatment	Number Used in Study--Control
Counselor Number One			
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 1	15	8	7
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 2	12	9	8
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Section 3	12	6	7
Repairmen, Mine Machines "Entry"	6	7	8
TOTAL	--	30	30
Counselor Number Two			
Bulldozer Operator	18	6	6
Welder, Combination "Entry"	12	8	5
Tractor and Implement Repairmen "Entry"	10	5	6
TOTAL	--	25	25
GRAND TOTAL	--	55	55

(6) One subject refused to visit and cooperate with counselors because he said officials of Manpower were only using people, "lining their pockets," and he was angered by not getting a job for which he had been trained.

Data Collection

The two counselors were responsible for the collection of data on subjects. As the counselors conferred with clients in the treatment group, they collected data on each subjects' age, marital status, education, jobs, etc. Counselors kept a record of the number of total contacts with each subject, his relatives or close friends. A record was kept of the hours of face to face counseling with the subject. The hours on a case did not include travel to and from the counseling setting, but telephone contacts and correspondence contacts--and hours associated with these contacts--were included.

No contacts were purposely made with members of control group, but in several cases avoidance was impossible since sometimes members of the control group would be at the homes or places of work of members of the treatment group.

Near the end of the experimental period, the counselors attempted to personally contact subjects of control and treatment groups for the explicit purpose of collecting data and administrating the job satisfaction test. When subjects were employed, their employers were also contacted to obtain the employee performance ratings. Unemployed subjects had neither the job satisfaction test given to them or the employee performance test administered on their behalf, but other data were collected pertinent to their case.

Similar data were collected on each subject in the treatment group and control group. Data centering around work activities were representative of the experimental period for that particular subject.

Following is a list of all data collected on mineographed forms used by the counselors and later coded on IBM cards to be used for analytical purposes:

1. Determination of whether the subject held a bonafide and legitimate job. See Definition of Terms, Chapter I.
2. A job satisfaction score. See Appendix A.
3. An employee performance score. See Appendix B.
4. The number of weeks it took the subject to get a bonafide and legitimate job. See Definition of Terms, Chapter I.
5. The percent of time the subject held a bonafide and legitimate job.
6. Dollars earned during the last week of the experimental period from a bonafide and legitimate job.
7. Dollars earned (converted to an equivalent 12 weeks period) from a bonafide and legitimate job.
8. Dollars earned (converted to an equivalent 12 weeks period) from all income. See Definition of Terms, Chapter I.
9. Determination of whether the subject worked at least one week at a job closely related to that for which he had been trained.
10. Primary reason indicated for not working at a bonafide and legitimate job.
11. Determination of the reason indicated for not working at a job closely related to training.
12. Age.
13. Race.

14. Whether the subject had been a past recipient of some type of public assistance, and if so, the number of years.
15. Marital status.
16. Number of dependents.
17. Years of formal education.
18. Years of out-of-state employment.
19. Area of residence--farm; rural, non-farm; or city.
20. Oklahoma county in which residing.
21. Availability of an automobile for transportation.
22. Availability of a telephone.
23. Manpower training received.
24. Duration of training program.
25. Percent of training program completed.
26. Month terminated from Manpower training.

Instrumentation

Two standardized instruments were chosen to measure the dependent variables, job satisfaction and employee performance rating. They were the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Questionniare and the Goertzel Job Success Rating Scale, Form A.

The Brayfield-Rothe Blank (found in Appendix A) was used in this study as a measure of occupational success as viewed from the individual's position. Boggs (2, p. 30), Frazier (7, p. 29) and Wallace (55, p. 26) used the Brayfield-Rothe Blank in school dropout studies because of its ease of administration, ease in scoring and applicability to a wide variety of jobs. According to Boggs (2, p. 30-31),

> The instrument is based on attitude scaling theory which assumes that job satisfaction can be inferred from an individual's attitude toward his job. Eighteen Thurstone-scaled items are contained in the instrument. The subject is asked to indicate whether he strongly agrees, agrees, is undecided, disagrees, or strongly disagrees with each of the eighteen statements. The responses are assigned weights ranging from 1 to 5. A total score is derived from the summation of the eighteen through ninety with a neutral or indifferent point at fifty-four.

Schletzer (32) used the Strong Vocational Inventory Blank as a predictor of job satisfaction with six professional groups of men. He used the Brayfield-Rothe Blank, the Hoppock Blank and the Job Dimensions Inventory as selected job satisfaction measures. A validity coefficient of .83 was obtained between the Brayfield-Rothe Blank and the Hoppock Blank, while a .67 was reported between the Brayfield-Rothe Blank and the Jobs Dimensions Inventory.

Brayfield and Crockett (5) reported the Brayfield-Rothe Blank used with a group of 55 plumber apprentices yielded a corrected split-half reliability coefficient of .83. They repeated the experiment several years later, except on farmers enrolled in a veteran's on-the-job training program, and found a corrected split-half reliability coefficient of .60.

At least one research, Vroom (54, p. 100) believes that some of the older instruments for measuring job satisfaction should be used to further validate and prove or disprove their reliability. He said:

> Unfortunately, there has been little standardization of job satisfaction measures. Most investigators "tailor-make" an instrument for the particular population they were studying. There are exceptions to this, such as the Brayfield-Rothe job satisfaction scale and the Kerr Tear Ballot both of which have had repeated use. However, investigators more commonly "adapt" old instruments or devise new ones to meet their requirements at a given time. This practice greatly restricts the comparability of different studies and results in relatively little attention to problems of scaling and of reliability and validity.

The Goertzel Job Success Rating Scale, Form A (Found in Appendix B) was used in this study as a measure of occupational success of subjects as viewed by their employers. Like the Brayfield-Rothe, the Geortzel is easy to administer and score. Boggs (2, p. 29) described it and its use as:

> The instrument is a Thurstone-type check list consisting of twenty-five weighted descriptive items which are characteristic of poor, average, and superior workers. The employer is asked to check only those items which characterized or describe the worker under consideration. Weights of the checked items are averaged to obtain one score which indicates worker performance.

Goertzel's Rating Scale was discussed by Ghiselli and Brown (10, p. 117) who lend support to the use of this scale on workers in varying job situations.

> Its advantage lies in the fact that the procedure permits the rater to make more precise and less ambigious expressions of his opinion concerning the worthiness of the individual being judged. In some instances it is desirable to obtain a rating of over-all performance for comparing persons on different jobs. Goertzel has developed a rating form of scaled items for such generalized use. Application of this form to various job groups gave reliability coefficients as high as those reported for specific jobs. These findings suggested that such generalized rating forms will give accurate appraisals of workers on job differing in many characteristics.

Goertzel (13) standarized his scale by administrating it in several industrial settings. A correlation of Form A and employer rankings of clerical workers yielded a validity coefficient of .83, and a reliability coefficient of .90 after corrected by the Spearman-Brown Formula. In another setting, using production workers, it yielded a .75 validity coefficient and a reliability coefficient of .80 between Form A and employer rankings.

Statistical Procedures

This discussion deals with statistical procedures--analytical and descriptive--used to treat data obtained for the study.

The t test described by Wert, Neidt and Ahman (56, p. 132) was used to test for significance at the .05 level of probability the dependent measures of job satisfaction, employee performance rating, weeks to obtain jobs, percent of time holding jobs, and income between the two independent samples groups (treatment group and control group).

An F ration was determined by a comparison of variance from dependent variable means. The size of this ratio dictated the use of a pooled-variance formula (for homogeneous sample populations) or a separate-variance formula (for heterogeneous sample populations). The t test values were calculated accordingly. Specifically, hypotheses 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 were tested by the t test. The researcher assumed that data representing the dependent variables were continous in nature and attained interval level of measurement.

Chi-square with Yates correction for continuity described by Siegel (33, pp. 96-107) was used to test for significance at the .05 level of probability the two independent samples (treatment group and control group) for differences in discrete categories of: (1) subjects holding and not holding jobs, and (2) subjects working at jobs for which they had been trained and those not. Specifically, this treatment of data applied to hypotheses 3 and 4.

Selected variables believed to concomitant were examined by descriptive techniques. Tables were constructed from frequency counts to demonstrate occurance of selected variables by treatment group and control group.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The presentation and analysis of data in this chapter was organized with the following rationale in mind: (1) to present ecologic and demographic data descriptive of experimental group subjects, (2) to present statistical analytical results considerate of treatment applied to experimental groups, and (3) a coordination of these findings suggestive of how ecologic and demographic considerations were concomitant with results obtained from experimentally treated groups.

The last part of this chapter deals with general remarks about subjects' employment situations. It is an exposition of what the researcher (Counselor Number One) and Counselor Number Two found in terms of home, community and area environmental settings; and, the problems they and subjects encountered during the research experimental period. Although appearing somewhat subjective in nature, the researcher made every attempt to report the employment situation of subjects in an unbiased manner as possible.

Ecologic and Demographic Examination

The first part of this chapter presents ecologic and demographic data. It is in keeping with stated minor objectives of the study to observe and attempt to identify selected factors of an ecologic and demographic nature possibly concomitant with dependent variables.

The two counselors met with each other at least once a month during the five months they worked on the research project. During these conferences they discussed factors they believed to be affecting their effort in improving clients' job satisfaction level, employee performance rating level and general employability. After administering counseling services for several weeks, certain variables seemed to be cropping up that were inhibiting the counselors' success, other than their personal limitations as occupational counselors attempting to help subjects adapt more readily to the rigors of the world of work. The counselors cooperatively developed a list of variables they deemed important enough to examine as concomitant for this research study. For example, counselors noticed that certain clients probably would not work at permanent employment if offered a "good job," regardless of how the counselor interacted with his client. Other subjects had wives or relatives who received adequate income; and, therefore, the subjects saw no need to work for a living. Ever so pressing was the minute opportunity for those who desired employment to work at Manpower training related jobs unless they left the area. From an array of such thoughts and others the counselors developed a list of variables they believed were effecting subjects' employability. The first list was about 30 items long and included some measurements either too impractical or impossible to obtain data upon. Intelligent quotients scores, alienation syndrone scores, complete childhood histories and General Apptitude Test Battery scores (obtained on only about 70 percent of the subjects by the

Employment Security Commission Offices since some subjects had too low of reading level), are but examples of these.

A list was finally settled upon and it was presented in Chapter III under Data Collection. In this first section of the Presentation and Analysis of Data, the following variables will be examined as they relate to experimental groups:

1. Selected quantitative input measures of counseling by counselors;
2. Age of subjects;
3. Subjects' years of education;
4. Subjects' marital status;
5. Subjects' average number of dependents;
6. Subjects' ethic group or race;
7. Area of residence by subjects;
8. Subjects' average years of out-of-state employment;
9. Availability to automobiles by subjects;
10. Availability to telephones by subjects;
11. Percent of MDTA instruction programs subjects' completed;
12. Reasons given by subjects for not working at bonafide and legitimate jobs; and
13. Reasons given by subjects for not working at training related jobs.

No statistical treatment techniques were applied to these data other than to present the selected possible concomitant variables in frequencv counted tabular form and by arithmetic averages on certain data when applicable.

Results of data reported in Table VI exemplify the number of counseling contacts and average counseling contacts with treatment subjects by both counselors. A counseling contact resulted from a "face to face" confrontation with the client, a contact by phone or correspondence, and/or a confrontation with close relatives and friends of the subject when the counselor believed it added benefically to counseling objectives. Since control subjects received no counseling treatment, they are excluded from counseling contacts. However, the experimental controls were contacted at least once for the explicit purpose of collecting data upon them. Therefore, the counselors worked considerably more hours than indicated by information supplied from Table VI. Likewise, the employers of subjects of holding jobs, from all experimental groups, were contacted and this placed additional hours on the work effort of the counselors, this not reported in Table VI.

Counselors Number One averaged 3.90 contacts with his 30 subjects; whereas, Counselor Number Two contacted each of his 25 subjects on the average of 5.85 times. Both counselors averaged nearly the same number of hours spent on counseling cases, 3.19 hours per client by Counselor Number One and 3.54 hours per clients by Counselor Number Two. Counselor Number One spent more hours than Counselor Two on subjects' cases, but 7.5 fewer total hours counseling in a "face to face" relationship. Considering both counselors, a comparison of "face to face" counseling hours with total hours on the cases indicated they spent 56 percent of their time in a "face to face" situation with clients.

TABLE VI

COUNSELING CONTACTS, HOURS OF COUNSELING AND HOURS OF "FACE TO FACE" COUNSELING WITH TREATMENT SUBJECTS BY COUNSELOR

	Frequency, Counselor No. One	Frequency, Counselor No. Two	Frequency, Total Counselors
Total Counseling Contacts			
2 - 3	10	1	11
4 - 5	16	11	27
6 - 9	4	13	17
Total Contacts	117	146	263
Average Contacts Per Subject	3.90	5.84	4.78
Total Counseling Hours			
Less than 1.9	4	5	9
2.0 - 2.9	9	3	12
3.0 - 3.9	9	5	14
4.0 - 4.9	4	2	6
More than 5.0	4	10	14
Total Hours	95.7	88.5	184.2
Average Hours Per Subject	3.19	3.54	3.35
"Face to Face" Counseling Hours			
Less than 0.1	8	8	16
1.0 - 1.9	8	1	9
2.0 - 2.9	4	8	12
3.0 - 3.9	7	5	12
More than 4.0	3	3	6
Total Hours	47.5	55.0	102.5
Average Hours Per Subject	1.58	2.20	1.86

Data from Table VII reports ecologic information obtained on subjects from the six experiment groups. Although not tested for significance, an examination of the average of subjects' ages by experimental groups showed slight differences. Subjects ranged in age from 18 to 50; mean age of all subjects was 33.7; and, subjects selected by random sampling into counseling treated groups averaged 2.7 years younger than control group subjects.

Subjects counseled and not counseled by Counselor Number One had approximately 1.5 years more education than those under the follow-up supervision of Counselor Number Two. Subjects in Counselor Number One's group ranged in years of education from 2 years to 15; whereas, Counselor Number Two's subjects had a range from 3 to 13 years of education.

An examination of marital status revealed 65 percent of all subjects had been "married once" and were still classified as married. The random sampling of all subjects into experimental groups yielded five subjects to the "presently divorced" classification for control, and only one subject to the treatment. More subjects among "married more than once" and "single" were found in treatment group than in control groups.

The last part of Table VII presents information on average number of dependents among the six experimental groups. Both counselors had one subject in their treatment group with as many as 13 dependents, while the maximum dependents in their control groups were six for Counselor Number One and seven for Counselor Number Two. Considering all subjects used in the study, they averaged 3.8 dependents. Subjects counseled by Counselor Number One (4.3 average number of dependents) varied from his other experimental group (3.6 dependents), and the two experimental groups of Counselor Number Two (both 3.6 dependents).

TABLE VII

AGE, YEARS OF EDUCATION, MARITAL STATUS, AND NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS OF SUBJECTS BY COUNSELOR AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Frequency, Counselor No. One		Frequency, Counselor No. Two		Frequency, Total Counselors	
	T*	C**	T	C	T	C
Age						
Less than 24	6	9	8	5	14	14
25 - 29	6	2	4	2	10	4
30 - 34	6	8	4	1	10	9
35 - 39	6	4	4	7	10	11
Over 40	6	7	5	10	11	17
Average Age	33.0	32.8	32.2	37.1	32.7	34.7
Years of Education						
Less than 7	3	1	6	4	9	5
7 - 8	8	8	7	7	15	15
9 - 11	7	8	8	10	15	18
12	8	12	3	4	11	16
More than 12	4	1	1	0	5	1
Average Years of Education	10.0	10.2	8.6	8.8	9.4	9.6
Marital Status						
Single	4	4	8	5	12	9
Married Once	22	21	13	15	35	36
Married More than Once	4	3	3	2	7	5
Presently Divorced	0	2	1	3	1	5
Number of Dependents						
1	4	5	9	7	13	12
2	3	4	5	2	8	6
3 - 5	14	16	4	9	18	25
6 - 8	8	5	6	7	14	12
9 and more	1	0	1	0	2	0
Average Number of Dependents	4.3	3.6	3.6	3.6	4.0	3.6

*T=Treatment Group
**C=Control Group

Information supplied from data in Table VIII shows ethnic classification "white" dominated for subjects studied by Counselor Number One, while "non-whites" and "whites" were nearly equally split among subjects under Counselor Number Two. All of the subjects classified as "non-white" were American Indians, except for two Spanish-American.

Area of residence, as revealed from data in Table VIII, showed 70 percent of all subjects used in the study were classified as living in rural, nonfarm residences, 24.5 percent in towns or cities, and 5.5 percent on farms. No particular large variations seem to occur between total treatment subjects and total control subjects as to areas of residence. However, in Counselor Number One's distribution the occurrence of 12 subjects from city or towns looked out of place in the total distribution among other experimental groups.

Considering years of previous out-of-state employment, 31 of 60 or 52 percent of the subjects followed by Counselor Number One had worked one year or more out-of-state. Thirty-six percent of all subjects followed by Counselor Number Two had worked more than one year out-of-state. Out-of-state employment was recorded if: (1) subjects were living and working out-of-state, and (2) subjects' families were living in Oklahoma, commuting weekly or less, but not daily to other states to work. Therefore, subjects who worked in Mena, Arkansas and commuted daily from their homes in Eastern Oklahoma were not recorded as working out-of-state. Counselor Number One's Subjects averaged 3.8 previous years of out-of state employment; whereas, Counselor Number Two's subjects averaged fewer years (18). The random sampling placed subjects who had more years of previous out-of-state employment in treatment groups (3.5 years) than in the control groups (2.2 years).

TABLE VIII

RACE, AREA OF RESIDENCE, AND YEARS PREVIOUS OUT-OF-STATE EMPLOYMENT BY COUNSELOR AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Frequency, Counselor No. One		Frequency, Counselor No. Two		Frequency, Total Counselors	
	T*	C**	T	C	T	C
Race						
White	29	26	12	14	41	40
Non-White	1	4	13	11	14	15
Area of Residence						
Farm	0	2	2	2	2	4
Rural, Non-Farm	22	16	19	20	41	36
City or Town (2,000+ population)	8	12	4	3	12	15
Years of Previous Out-of-State Employment						
None	13	16	16	16	29	32
1 - 5	8	5	3	8	11	13
6 - 10	3	7	5	0	8	7
Over 10	6	2	1	1	7	3
Average Years of Out-of-State Employment	4.5	3.1	2.4	1.2	3.5	2.2

*T=Treatment Group
**C=Control Group

A possible concomitant variable believed by counselors to be influencing success in counseling subjects and in encouraging their adaptation to a work situation, was the availability subjects had to automobiles and telephones.

These results are shown in Table IX. Counselors observed and/or asked directly of the subject whether his auto functioned sufficiently to get him to and from work. Six of the 55 subjects or 11 percent had no automobiles or indicated they were nonfunctional, among those receiving counseling services. Three of the 55 control subjects responded similarly.

TABLE IX

SUBJECTS' AVAILABILITY TO AUTOMOBILES AND TELEPHONES BY COUNSELOR AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Frequency, Counselor No. One		Frequency, Counselor No. Two		Frequency, Total Counselors	
	T*	C**	T	C	T	C
Auto Availability						
Had	27	29	22	23	49	52
Had Not	3	1	3	2	6	3
Phone Availability						
Had	16	20	5	13	21	33
Had Not	14	10	20	12	34	22

*T=Treatment Group
**C=Control Group

The incidence of telephones, as shown in Table IX, was greater among Counselor Number One's subjects (36 had phones out of 60 or 60 percent) than among Counselor Number Two's subjects (18 had phones out of 50 or 36 percent). The frequency count of telephones by experimental groups seems to indicate a disporportionate number of subjects not having telephones were random sampled into the treatment groups.

Table X describes information concerning data on success in completing Manpower training classes from which subjects used in the study were selected. Subjects from classes followed-up by Counselor Number Two had higher percent completion (96.9 percent) than those followed-up by Counselor Number One (92.4 percent).

Counselor Number Two had only one subject among his treatment group and three subjects among his control group who did not have 100 percent completion. Whereas, Counselor Number One had nine subjects among his treatment group and eight control group subjects completing less than 100 percent of their respective Manpower training classes. The random sampling, however, placed nearly the same percent of subjects completing Manpower instruction into total treatment groups and total control groups (94.6 percent and 94.3 percent, respectively).

TABLE X

AVERAGE PERCENT OF MDTA INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM SUBJECTS COMPLETED BY COUNSELOR AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

MDTA Class Titles	Average Percent Completed Treatment Group	Average Percent Completed Control Group
Counselor No. One		
Mining Machine Operator "Entry" Classes--Section 1, 2, and 3	94.3	95.5
Repairmen, Mine Machines, "Entry"	82.0	87.3
Classes--Counselor No. One	91.5	93.3
Counselor No. Two		
Bulldozer Operator	100	100
Welder, Combination "Entry"	100	95.0
Maintenance Mechanic, Farm "Entry"	100	100
Tractor and Implement Repairmen "Entry"	91.6	85.5
Classes--Counselor No. Two	98.3	95.5
Total Counselors		
All Classes	94.6	94.3

Counselors asked directly or vicariously learned of subjects why they did not hold bonafide and legitimate jobs. These indicated responses are reported in Table XI. All subjects who held bonafied and legitimate were recorded as "not applicable." Some subjects (eight in the case of Counselor Number One's control group and 13 totally for both counselors, treatment and control) had jobs, but these jobs were classified by the researcher as non-legitimate as far as the study was concerned. There was an indicated tendency for Counselor Number One's subjects (five subjects) to receive income via wifes working, this being the primary source of family income. Seven subjects (five from the control group and two from the treatment group) under consideration by Counselor Number Two were known to be and/or they indicated they were receiving some type of public assistance such as county welfare or Bureau of Indian Affair payments.

Counselors categorized subjects' indicated responses to reasons for not working at jobs closely related to the Manpower training received. Since several subjects received training related jobs they were reported as "not applicable" on Table XI. A large percent of all subjects or 73 percent expressed a desire to obtain jobs concurrent with the Manpower training, but indicated jobs were not available in the immediate area they resided. Sixteen subjects by Counselor Number Two indicated no desire to work at that for which they had been trained, while seven indicated similarly to Counselor Number One. Subjects in treatment groups indicated to counselors a desire to obtain work in training related jobs to a greater extent than subjects in the control groups. This being 33 treatment group subjects as compared to 30 control group subjects.

TABLE XI

REASONS INDICATED BY SUBJECTS FOR NOT WORKING AT BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOBS, AND FOR NOT WORKING AT TRAINING RELATED JOBS

	Frequency, Counselor No. One		Frequency, Counselor No. Two		Frequency, Total Counselors	
	T*	C**	T	C	T	C
Reason Indicated for Not Working at Bonafide and Legitimate Job						
Had income from non-legitimate jobs	3	8	1	1	4	9
Wife worked	3	2	0	0	3	2
Received unemployment compensation benefits	1	1	0	0	1	1
Received some type of public assistance benefits	0	1	2	5	2	6
Friends and relatives provided income	0	2	0	3	0	5
Combination of friends and relatives provided income and received some type of public assistance benefits	1	0	0	1	1	1
Not applicable	22	16	22	15	44	31
Reason Indicated for Not Working at Training Related Job						
Desired, but job not available in immediate area	22	22	8	11	30	33
Did not desire to work at training related job	2	5	8	8	10	13
Not applicable	6	3	9	6	15	9

*T=Treatment Group
**C=Control Group

Statistical Findings

This part of the chapter seeks to present the effects of counseling (independent treatment) upon subjects used in the study. Dependent measures of job satisfaction scores, employee performance rating scores, training effeciency and employability were collected. These dates were treated with appropriate statistical procedures to determine counseling treatment effects.

The *t* test was used as a test of significance to treat means of dependent variables. Values obtained assumed interval level of measurement and yielded continuous data resulting from the two independent samples. Whereas, Chi-square was used to test for significance. Selected dependent variables that assumed nominal level of measurement and yielded discrete data resulting from two case independent samples. Two case independent samplings constituted treatment groups and control groups as generated from the study's design. Hypotheses, tested in the same order as they appear in Chapter One, were non-directed, two-tailed test of significance.

Effects of Counseling upon Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance Ratings

Not all of the subjects included in the study had the dependent variables of job satisfaction scores and employee performance rating scores collected. Since some subjects remained unemployed, neither job satisfaction scores nor employee performance rating scores could be collected. In addition, subjects not holding bonafide and legitimate jobs were excluded from the job satisfaction and employee performance rating blanks.

There were originally 30 total subjects included in the study from Counselor Number One's treatment group. Twenty-two of them completed the job satisfaction blank. For these same subjects completed performance rating blanks were also obtained from their employers. From the original 30 total subjects in Counselor Number One's control group, 15 job satisfaction and 15 employee performance rating blanks were obtained. Collection by Counselor Number Two included 21 job satisfaction and employee performance rating blanks from his total 25 treatment group subjects, and 12 each from his total 25 control group subjects. Two hypotheses were tested in order to evaluate the results of the counseling treatment upon the two dependent variables--job satisfaction and employee performance ratings.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in subjects' job satisfaction mean scores at the end of the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

The t test was used to test these hypotheses as shown by results presented in Table XII. The t test value of .06 between treatment group and control group indicate the null hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, it was evident that no significant difference was determined by use of experimental treatment. The job satisfaction means of all subjects who received counseling were slightly lower than those not receiving counseling, with means of 62.07 as compared to 62.22. However, Counselor Number One's subjects, who received counseling, had slightly higher job satisfaction means than those who had not. The reverse situation held true for Counselor Number Two.

No clear and concise explanation can be given by the researcher for acceptance of the null hypotheses on job satisfaction, other than to say there apparently was no difference. Both counselors early

TABLE XII

t TEST ANALYSIS OF JOB SATISFACTION

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	22	15	21	12	43	27
$\bar{X}$	62.23	61.00	61.90	63.75	62.07	62.22
t value					.06	
p					$1.00 > p > .90$	

became aware of this trend as they recognized the predominance of a somewhat negative attitude towards work ingrained in subjects. In fact, counselors believed they could almost predict clients' job satisfaction level after several counseling sessions with the client. Persons holding a high degress of alientation toward work, as discovered by counselors through counseling sessions, seemed to yield low job satisfaction scores. However, this argument cannot be established. Randomization was assumed to take care of differences between experimental groups that might indicate subjects started (previous to counseling sessions) at different levels of job satisfactions.

The experimental counseling period may have been too short to effort job satisfaction. Still another premise is that in the act of counseling, subjects' anxiety levels and general feelings toward their jobs could well have been altered. For example, counselees who had jobs and were displeased with them wanted to visit about methods whereby they could get better jobs, rather than about how "wonderful" it was to have the low esteem job he held. It was difficult for counselors to pacify a client who held a poverty level income job--infact, at times the counselor believed he would perhaps even help alienate the client against his present job when job tasks were discussed.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in subjects' employee performance rating mean scores at the end of the experimental period, between treatment groups and control group.

Data presented in Table XIII shows results of applying the t test in order to test the hypothesis. The value of t found demanded its acceptance.

TABLE XIII

t TEST ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE RATING

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	22	15	21	12	43	27
$\bar{X}$	38.32	44.07	40.38	40.42	39.33	42.44
t value					1.75	
p					$.10 > p > .05$	

There was an observed difference in the employee performance means of those subjects counseled by Counselor Number One and those not counseled by him (38.32 for treatment group subjects and 44.07 for control group subjects). Little differences was observed between the employee performance means of those counseled and not counseled by Counselor Number Two, with average scores of 40.38 and 40.32.

Rationale for explaining the observed lower employee performance rating average on the part of subjects counseled by Counselor Number One as compared to his control group subjects might be as follows. Counseling did cause subjects to obtain jobs to a greater extent than if not counseled. This is strongly indicated in a later presentation. The additional subjects (individuals who may not have received jobs, had they not been counseled) could have been very poor workers, thus accounting for low employee performance rating. Interesting also, is the fact that of three experimental group subjects counseled by Counselor Number One, had identical job satisfaction scores of 76. Furthermore, two had the lowest employee performance ratings of 21 and 17, this among their experimental group. The subject with the 76 and 17 job satisfaction score and employee rating score, respectively, seemed by his counselor to be well adjusted to his work situation. However, his immediate superior in a meat packing plant was extremely critical of his work effort. This same subject gave evidence of liking his job basically because it paid a greater hourly wage than others in his peer group were accustomed to receiving.

Effects of Counseling upon Training Efficiency

Two dependent variables were selected in an attempt to measure the effect of counseling upon training efficiency. There were (1) by subjects who held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the treatment period and (2) by subjects who held closely related jobs to that for which they had been trained through Manpower programs. Counselors made decisions on each subject with regard to discretely classifying these two criteria.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the ratio of those holding bonafide and legitimate jobs and those not holding such jobs during the experimental period, between control groups and treatment groups.

The Chi-square technique, using Yates correction for continuity with two by two contingency tables, was used to test these hypotheses for significance with results shown in Table XIV. The calculated Chi-square value of 5.15 at the .05 probability level was revealed for combined counselor total. Data indicate that counseling treatment had a favorable effect on total subjects holding bonafide and legitimate jobs; therefore, this null hypothesis was rejected. The t test values reported between the means by Counselor Number One's subjects and Counselor Number Two's subjects were too low to gain significant magnitude; however, both values were directed toward counseling bringing about a favorable effect in regard to job holding status.

TABLE XIV

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOB STATUS

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
Held Jobs	22	16	22	16	44	32
Not Held Jobs	8	14	3	9	11	23
x^2 Value	1.79		2.74		5.15	
p	$.20 > p > .10$		$.10 > p > .05$		$.05 > p > .02$	

Significant total results by total counselors might indicate the counselors were doing their assigned tasks--that of helping treatment subjects who were oftentimes somewhat unresponsive to the idea.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the ratio of those working at closely related jobs for which they had been trained and those who did not work at such jobs during the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Data presented in Table XV establish the probability of total subjects getting jobs closely related to that for which they had been trained as not being significant at the .05 level of probability. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

TABLE XV

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TRAINING
RELATED JOB STATUS

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
Related Jobs	6	3	7	3	13	6
No Related Jobs	24	27	18	27	42	49
x^2 Value					2.29	
p					$.20 > p > .10$	

Though not significant, there was observed a tendency of counseling treated subjects to get traing related jobs to a greater extent than control subjects. The researcher believed that if enough training related jobs had been available for all subjects, significance would have been obtained similarly as it was in the last variable dealing with subjects receiving and holding bonafide jobs. Counselors, working in that particular area of state, observed their clients as having little opportunity to work at training related jobs.

Effects of Counseling upon Employability

Five dependent variables were chosen to measure the effect of counseling upon subjects' employability. They were:

1. The number of weeks expended by subjects to obtain bonafide and legitimate jobs, considering all subjects in the study. Those subjects who did not get bonafide and legitimate jobs had the length in weeks of the experimental period (see Definition of Terms, Chapter One; and, Table V, Chapter Three) recorded for this variable. Experimental periods ranged in length from 6 to 18 weeks. Subjects who terminated early from Manpower training had their experimental periods lengthened accordingly. Therefore, a subject who terminated 6 weeks prior to completion of his Manpower training, and remained unemployed during a class experimental period of 10 weeks, would have been recorded as requiring 16 weeks to get a bonafide and legitimate job.

2. Percent of time that all subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period.

3. Dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the converted 12 weeks experimental period, considering all subjects. Because of the range in experimental periods from 6 to 18 weeks, it was necessary to convert to a common length or equivalent experimental period in order to make an impartial evaluation. The 12 weeks was selected since three of the eight classes used in the study were 12 weeks, and it represented a fairly close average of all classes, as

shown in Table V, Chapter III.

4. Dollars received from all income during the converted 12 week experimental period. All income included monies from all and any sources.

5. Dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate income during the last week of the experimental period, considering all subjects.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in mean number of weeks expended by all subjects to obtain bonafide and legitimate jobs after completion or termination from Manpower training, between treatment groups and control groups.

The t test calculated from data in Table XVI revealed that counseling favorably effected total subject's promptness on receiving employment as indicated by significance at the .01 level for total.

TABLE XVI

t TEST ANALYSIS OF WEEKS FOR ALL SUBJECTS TO GET BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOBS

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	30	30	25	25	55	55
$\bar{X}$	4.17	6.87	4.16	6.84	4.16	6.85
t value	1.96		2.13		2.86	
p	$.10 > p > .05$		$.05 > p > .02$		$.01 > p > .001$	

By Counselor Number Two, data representing this dependent variable showed a significant probability level of .05 between mean weeks for subjects counseled and not counseled. No significance was noted in regard to subjects followed by Counselor Number One, but the probality was between the .10 and .05 level in favor of the counseling treatment. In all cases (by Counselor Number One, Counselor Number Two and total combined counselors) it required an average of approximately 4.2 weeks for subjects in the counseling treatment groups to obtain bonafide and legitimate jobs; whereas, it required 6.8 weeks for subjects from the control groups.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in mean percent of time all subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

The means reported for the percent of time subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs varied considerably as shown in Table XVII. Subjects counseled by Counselor Number One held jobs on the average 62.7 percent of the time during the experimental periods; whereas, controls for the same counselor was 39.53 percent. Similarly, Counselor Number Two's treatment subjects held jobs 55.00 percent of the time as compared to 37.16 for his control group subjects.

TABLE XVII

t TEST ANALYSIS OF PERCENT OF TIME ALL SUBJECTS HELD BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOBS

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	30	30	25	25	55	55
$\overline{X}$	62.70	39.53	55.00	37.16	59.20	38.45
t value	2.18		1.85		2.87	
p	$.05 > p > .02$		$.10 > p > .05$		$.01 > p > .001$	

Total subjects averaged 59.20 and 38.45, respectively, treatment and control. These means were significant at the .01 level of probability and the null hypothesis was rejected. Significant t tests were also obtained on subjects' percent of time holding bonafide and legitimate jobs by Counselor Number One (at the .05 level). Counselor Number Two's experimental group means were observed to favor the counseling treatment, although not significant by the t test. A logical conclusion from evidence presented is that counseling affected favorably job holding by subjects.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in mean dollars earned by all subjects from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the converted experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

The t test values shown in Table XVIII do not indicate a significant difference of the means between treatment and control subjects, even though subjects in the treatment groups had 183 dollars more income on the average from bonafide and legitimate jobs than those

TABLE XVIII

t TEST ANALYSIS OF DOLLARS EARNED BY ALL SUBJECTS FROM BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOBS

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	30	30	25	25	55	55
$\overline{X}$	789.00	486.07	445.84	408.38	633.02	450.71
t value					1.56	
p					$.20 > p > .10$	

subjects in the control groups. Counselor Number Two's subjects averaged nearly 300 dollars more than his control group subjects, with this difference being only 37 dollars for Counselor Two's subjects. An interesting observation was that all subjects used in the study averaged only 45 dollars per week income each from jobs considered bonafide and legitimate by the researcher. Converting this to a yearly wage, this would be only 2340 dollars, approximately 1000 dollars below the poverty level figure for a family of four.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference in mean dollars received from all income during the converted experimental period, between treatment groups and control groups.

Income from all sources did not vary significantly when data were subjected to the t test, as shown in Table XIX. The null hypothesis was accepted. Subjects by Counselor Number One had higher income during the experimental period (924.24 dollars) than did his controls (758.60 dollars). Little difference was observed on average income received by those subjects counseled by Counselor Number Two and those

TABLE XIX

t TEST ANALYSIS OF DOLLARS RECEIVED BY ALL SUBJECTS FROM ALL INCOME

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	30	30	25	25	55	55
$\overline{X}$	924.20	758.60	543.44	533.88	751.13	656.45
t value					0.90	
p					$1.00 > p > .90$	

who he did not counsel. The average weekly income of all subjects used in the study was 57 dollars during the converted experimental period. This income included income from all sources discovered by counselors and/or disclosed by clients to the counselors. It included welfare payments, unemployment insurance, as well as jobs where federal income tax and social security deductions were made.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in mean dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate jobs by all subjects during the last week of the experimental period between treatment groups and control groups.

Table XX describes data representative of dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the last week of the experimental period. Examination of the means showed treatment group subjects by Counselor Number One, Counselor Number Two and total, averaged about 15 to 20 dollars more than control group subjects. Considering all subjects, the null hypothesis was accepted.

TABLE XX

t TEST ANALYSIS OF DOLLARS EARNED FROM BONAFIDE AND LEGITIMATE JOBS BY ALL SUBJECTS DURING THE LAST WEEK OF THE EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD

	COUNSELOR NO. ONE		COUNSELOR NO. TWO		TOTAL	
	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control	Treatment	Control
N	30	30	25	25	55	55
$\overline{X}$	78.80	62.43	57.68	39.32	69.20	51.93
t value					1.47	
p					$.20 > p > .10$	

Remarks about Subjects' Employment Situations

One purpose of Manpower training is to retrain unemployed and underemployed individuals for jobs in their immediate work and residence areas. Both counselors found that the opportunity for the Manpower graduates to work locally in the specific occupation for which they had been trained was slight.

Information supplied from data in Table XIV showed only 15 subjects held jobs closely related to those for which they were trained. Of 60 subjects who received training in mine machinery operations or mine machinery repairing at Poteau, Oklahoma, only two received work in the coal mines locally and a third left the state (and his family) to go to work in a coal mine near Bixby, Missouri. In the bulldozer operator class at Kenwood, Oklahoma, only one person worked as a bulldozer operator during the experimental period of 18 weeks. This low number of persons receiving training related jobs generally held true for all eight classes followed by the two counselors.

Therefore, the counselors basically found themselves working with MDTA graduates whose views were disparaging about work opportunities since the clients were not so naive as to "know the score." Graduates of the second and third sections of mine machinery operator classes knew those in the first section did not get jobs in the mines and knew their chances were poor also. In interviews, it was found that most trainees were inclined to feel that they should be "handed a job" in the local mines even though they would not be given any favors due to their being in mine training. Mine officials, however, maintained the position that the justification for not hiring MDTA trained men was that they needed experienced miners and that the mines were "not developing" fast enough to make room for hiring additional employees.

Counselor Number Two said he detected a feeling of animosity on the part of prospective employers toward the Manpower trained. According to the counselor, employers were antagonistic toward him and workers for whom he was attempting to find employment, because the employers said they had previously had poor success with MDTA trained persons.

The counselors felt they were working with persons who had been disillusioned by repeated references extolling opportunities for work. Men in mine training were well aware that the mines paid $3.49 per hour, and at least 70 percent of them as indicated by information from Table XI,desired an opportunity to "give it a try." Therefore, these men either stayed unemployed or begrudgingly accepted work (if they could get it) at usually the minimum wage of $1.60.

Both counselors, due to their activities in following Manpower trainees, visited with employers, school officials, town businessmen and community "power structure" persons. Counselors observed certain public school officials often expressed a sincere concern for the socio-economic and education deprived citizens found in their communities. This was indicated by curricular offerings of vocational programs at both the high school and post-high school levels. However, it seemed to the counselors that there was a syndrome on the part of employers against attracting industry (especially unionized industry) that would cause the cost of labor to go up. Counselor Number One was told on several occasions that "this fine little town really doesn't want industry to come in because of the 'trashy' people it would attract and the smell it makes; and if our Chamber of Commerce says they do, they are only giving lip service to the idea." In counseling interviews, clients often confirmed this philosophy and spoke resentfully of it.

Many clients, although appreciative of the training they received, openly critized the Oklahoma Employment Security Commission system, administrators of the MDTA, as well as the quality of instruction received. The counselors were convinced by the end of the experimental period that perhaps 30 percent of trainees were in an MDTA program solely due to income received as training allowance; and if they received a better job--fine, if not, okay too.

Certainly the two counselors were well aware that they had their work cut out for them. Often as not, the counselors had to pacify a working client to keep him at his job. Often the counselors had to encourage and direct the client to continue seeking work, even though the odds were minimal against his finding permanent work in local counties with a persistent unemployment rate running as high as 20 percent.

The counselors were duty bound to attempt to get the client to look toward a "brighter future" due to his recent training even though, at times, it was difficult for the counselors themselves to believe it. Basically counselors continued in their endeavors because of the success they felt in certain cases and the often expressed appreciation on the part of clients toward the counselors in recognizing that someone was interested in them. Rarely did any client outrightly "reject" the counseling service. Counselor Number One, a native of another state, could not help but be impressed by the friendliness, openness, and total "receptive atmosphere" demonstrated by these "Okies."

Not only did the area in which the counselors worked not provide the Manpower trained individuals with adequate opportunity for permanent work, but those trained often seemed to lack faculties for overcoming their occupational deficiencies. Although no record was kept directly on each subject as to his shortcomings, these deficiencies seemed to bear heavily on the problem of subjects' unsuccessful adaptation to the world of work:

1. A strong feeling of family ties and a "loving" of the area. Most of the subjects had been reared in the immediate area and openly expressed resentments against the possibility of leaving even though they felt they could get better jobs. As Table VIII shows, 45 percent of the subjects had worked out of state, and through interviews it was learned these jobs paid considerably more than jobs they held in Eastern Oklahoma. But, according to clients, they "came back" because they said they wanted to spend the last few years with aging relatives; and they liked to hunt, fish, and climb mountains, and look at beautiful scenery. Upon further discussion in counseling sessions, counselors learned that clients were also strongly alienated and dissatisfied with living conditions in what they claimed to be "impersonal" industrial communities in such sections of the country as Southern California, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas and Ohio—these being common areas from which subjects had migrated back to Eastern Oklahoma.

2. A prevalent frame of reference held to by subjects was the belief that friends, relatives, public assistance, and the "fruits of the land" would take care of those who did not wish to work. Many of the subjects were classified as rural, non-farm and though no exact record regarding ownership of property, probably one-half subjects owned their own homes. Property taxes seemed extremely low in that part of Oklahoma. One client who owned his own place revealed he paid $20.00 a year for property taxes on his home in the Ouachita Mountains. This same client said he would not work until his employment compensation was used up and the $380.00 he had in the bank was gone. He and his family often ate their meals at his mother's home and she had a large garden.
3. There seemed to often be a syndrome characterized by extreme alientation against working for low wages, and commuting daily twenty miles or more. Clients often talked about how little of wages they had left after driving to Muskogee, Oklahoma; Fort Smith, Arkansas; or Mena, Arkansas. Yet they did not desire to live in such cities because of what they viewed as lack of recreational facilities (mainly hunting and fishing) and people like themselves to relate to interpersonally, as well as complaints against the costs of living there. They expressed resentment about the cost of transporation, social security deductions and federal withholding taxes. The lingo would go like this: "I make $64.00 a week, drive 60 miles a day, the government takes $10.00, and what do I have left?" Quite often too, he despised the automated work

he had to do, and wished he could find work closer to home, paying a higher wage, and providing a job task more to his liking.

4. Another problem was the lack of suitable auto transporation and phone services. The counselors recorded nine of the 110 subjects as having no access automobile transportation, as shown in information from Table IX. Perhaps an additional 20 to 30 subjects had automobiles that ran poorly and could not be depended upon to get them to work Thirty-two of the 50 subjects recorded by Counselor Number Two had no private telephone service and 24 of 60 subjects counted for by Counselor Number One had none. Counselors agreed that the lack of these communicative services placed certain clients in a rather poor position for job seeking and job maintenance.
5. Certain subjects were viewed by the investigator to be too poor to seek work. This was the case with about 10 American Indians and American Mexican subjects followed by Counselor Number One who had 24 non-white subjects of 50 total. Counselor Number Two's subject were more affluent and did not have this particular limitation. However, nearly all subjects used in the study were viewed as having difficulty in knowing how to go about job seeking. Since subjects had past records of severe unemployment, they seemed apathetic in venturing out for prospective jobs. They experienced difficulty in filling out job application forms because the forms were such as to display acturately their past work records, arrests, and other factors causing personal embarrassment to them.

6. Certain subjects found ways of receiving income from jobs in which the employers were circumventing the law by not deducting federal withholding taxes and social security payments. Subjects openly admitted they had no intention of reporting this income. Admittedly this caused a serious problem in reporting the incomes of subjects included in this research project. The researcher finally settled upon reporting income by: (1) bonafied and legitimate income; and (2) by all income. See Defination of Terms in Chapter One.

For example, the case of a 24 year-old subject was studied by Counselor Number One. The subject after completing Manpower training returned to work for his father cutting logs for $12.00 per day. Immediately after completing Manpower, he also applied for and received unemployment compensation for four weeks at $34.00 per week. He had qualified for it due to recent military service. Although, he was working, he did not report his income from the log cutting activities to Employment Security. The subject openly discussed the advantage of cutting logs as compared to working in Fort Smith, Arkansas. He said he could make $60.00 a week with no taxes or social security deducted. Whereas, if he had worked in Fort Smith, he would not have realized as much income.

Several other subjects were applying the same principle (not reporting income from jobs because it would take them off of unemployment compensation or public welfare payments) but their work activities were associated with strawberry picking, baling hay, light construction, and other part-time and seasonal work.

7. Several cases cropped up where subjects viewed as socially legitimate their intended purposes of taking jobs in other states for several months, getting "laid-off", returning to their homes in Eastern Oklahoma, and drawing unemployment compensation during the rest of the year until they were ready to repeat the cycle again. One subject complained bitterly that the State of California had "cut him off" after three years because of a "quirk" in the California law. The subject told the counselor that he could get $65.00 a week from a California unemployment compensation qualification, but only $38.00 from Oklahoma. The subjects who were using this "system" worked mostly in construction related jobs, whereby they could be conveniently "laid-off" near the end of the construction period. Subjects who had used this "system" mentioned that the best time to leave the state of Oklahoma was in April and they usually planned to return in September. Some took their families with them, but this seemed dependent upon their children and their schooling.

The aforementioned general remarks were given since these philosophies and social problems became important in carrying out counseling activities with subjects. Needless to say, such attitudes were well ingrained in subjects and the counselors believed it would have taken years (rather than the several months of counseling treatment) to overcome how some subjects felt and consequently acted in regard to their social and occupational situations.

Case Studies

The researcher selected several subjects on whom to write occupational case studies. These are found in Appendix C. The purpose of the case studies was to expound upon how several clients felt about their Manpower training, what situation or setting they found themselves in, how they felt toward work, what direction the counselor attempted to take the client, and how the client responded to treatment.

Counselors recorded notes of each counseling session following its conclusion. Tape recorders aided the counselors in doing this since their remarks about a case could be typed by secretaries and reviewed briefly before the next counseling session. Counselors also used the tape recorder in counseling settings, but only with the expressed approval of clients. Such case notes and tapes when shared by the two counselors aided them in coordinating their activities and counseling techniques.

Cases selected were not necessarily ones in which the counselor felt he accomplished a great deal in bringing the clients to a higher level of occupational adjustment or ones in which there seemed to be no success. Rather they are cases that were typical of counseling activities conducted during the counseling research project. Because of the uniqueness of each case, it is impossible to say that the selected cases are representative of the members of the eight different MDTA classes that counselors followed and counseled.

Subjects were cautioned by counselors that information they provided would be held in strictest confidence. Therefore, names of clients and localities where they resided were not identified.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The central theme of the study was a concern for measuring possible effects of post-Manpower-training counseling of an occupational nature upon certain facets of perception and behavior of subjects from eight selected Oklahoma MDTA classes held during 1967-68. The effects of the counseling treatment were measured by (1) subjects' job satisfaction scores, (2) employee performance scores, (3) training efficiency, and (4) general employability.

Counseling services were administered by two counselors, each working with randomly assigned subjects from assigned selected classes. One-half of the subjects from each of eight classes were placed into treatment groups, made up of those receiving counseling services, with the remaining one-half comprised of control groups, made up of subjects not receiving counseling services. Each counselor worked with subjects who had been trained in four different Manpower classes. Counselor Number One had 30 subjects in each of his treatment and control groups and Counselor Number Two and 25 in each experimental group. Thus , a total of 110 subjects were included in the study.

Data were collected on all subjects near the conclusion of an experimental period. The experimental period was designated as the duration of time extending from the conclusion of the subjects' Manpower training until counseling services were terminated with treatment group subjects. However, data were collected on both treatment and control subjects at essentially the same time, considering any particular class, in order to equate as nearly as possible the periods for both treatment and control groups.

Counselors attempted to bring about an improvement in counselees' job satisfaction level and other selected dependent variables through administering client-centered counseling. Hypotheses, generated from theory, were non-directional and statistical test results were used to explain significant differences. The .05 level of probability was established for determining significance and applied to data representing the two case independent samples of those subjects receiving counseling and those not receiving counseling. Because of the fact that two counselors were involved in providing treatment upon which data were collected, stated hypotheses were tested by data representative of Counselor Number One's subjects and Counselor Numbe Two's subjects _only_ when significant differences were found on the dependent measure combining data secured on subjects of both counselors.

Summary and Conclusions

Ecologic and Demographic Considerations. Certain ecologic and demographic data were collected on all subjects included in the study. These data were simply presented by showing frequency counts or averages, when considered applicable. Such data were presented because it was recognized by the researcher that ecologic and demographic variables may be somewhat concomitant with dependent variables tested. An examination of such applicable data also revealed observed differences between subjects in Counselor Number One's experimental groups and subjects in Counselor Number Two's experimental groups. These phenomena were considered worthy of attention and presentation.

A record of counseling activities accomplished by the two counselors showed that they averaged 4.78 counseling contacts with the 55 subjects assigned to treatment groups. The two counselors spent an average of 3.35 hours on each subjects' case, excluding travel time. However, in terms of "face-to-face" confrontation with their clients, counselors averaged only 1.86 hours per individual client. The difference between hours of "face-to-face" confrontation with clients and total hours spent on cases caused the researcher to recognize that clients living in rural areas were often difficult to locate and to administer counseling services.

The average age of all subjects included in the study was 33.7 years. Subjects followed by Counselor Number One and subjects followed by Counselor Number Two were similar in age distribution. Counselor Number One's subjects had achieved an average of 1.4 more years of education than did subjects followed by Counselor Number Two. Data pertaining to marital status revealed that 19.1 percent of all subjects were single, 64.5 percent were married only once, 10.9 percent were currently married and had been married at least once before, while 5.5 percent were divorced and not presently remarried. The average number of dependents, inclusive of the subject, was 3.8 per subject. The researcher must report that few differences were observed between experimental groups with regard to age, marital status and number of dependents claimed. Subjects followed by Counselor Number One had completed more years of education than those followed by Counselor Number Two.

An examination of subjects with regard to race, area of residence and years of out-of-state employment revealed: (1) Fifty-five subjects followed by Counselor Number One were Caucasian and only five were classified as non-white; whereas, Counselor Number Two's individual subjects were 52 percent white and 48 percent non-white--these non-white being mostly American Indians; (2) Seventy-seven of the total 110 subjects included in the study were rural, non-farm; 27 lived in towns or cities of over 2,000 population and only six were living on farms; and (3) Thirty-one of Counselor Number One's 60 subjects had worked at least one year out-of-state; whereas, only 18 of Counselor Number Two's 50 subjects had worked out-of-state. The researcher concluded there was little observed difference in area of residence by experimental groups, but Counselor Number Two's subjects were from populations more representative of non-white cultures than Counselor Number One's subjects. There was also a tendency for subjects followed by Counselor Number One to have averaged more work years out-of-state than those followed by Counselor Number Two.

Subjects in Counselor Number One's experimental groups completed 92.4 percent of their respective Manpower training programs, these programs centering around instruction in mine operations and repairing. Counselor Number Two's subjects completed 97.4 percent of their training, this consisting of instruction in bulldozer operation, welding, and agricultural mechanics. The investigator felt that he must also conclude that there was an observed tendency for subjects from American Indian cultures to be more attentive to the responsibility of attendance in Manpower class than those from white cultures. This could very well be closely associated with decisions as to alternative use of time during the training period. Whites were more inclined to take days off to work when the pay received for such work added more to income than the training allowance received. Likewise, Caucasians definitely had a greater opportunity for more permanent types of work and, consequently, tended to terminate instructional programs earlier than American Indians.

A study of the availability of automobiles and telephone services revealed: (1) Among counselor Number Two's subjects, 10 percent had no use of a functioning automobile; while, among Counselor Number One's subjects, 6.7 percent had no automobile; and (2) Forty-eight percent of Counselor Number One's subjects had no phones in their homes, but 64 percent of subjects from Counselor Number Two's experimental group had no available telephone communication service. It was concluded that the lack of automobiles, that could be depended upon to get subjects to and from work, played a role in whether the subject found employment and worked during the experimental period. Likewise, it was believed telephone service was concomitant with employability. The lack of telephones on the part of clients made counseling contacts in some cases extremely difficult since the counselor was forced to try to find the client at home without first making a contact by telephone.

Counselors directly asked, or in some cases vicariously learned, reasons why subjects did not work at bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period. Considering indicated reasons given among the 37 responses applicable to this criteria were: (1) Thirteen held jobs that were classified as not being bonafide and legitimate; (2) Five included work of the wife as the primary source of family income; (3) Two received unemployment benefits; (4) Eight received some type of public assistance; (5) Five lived off incomes of friends and relatives; and (6) Two lived off incomes as indicated by a combination of numbers four and five above. Subjects' indicated responses to their reasons for not working at training-related jobs among all 110 subjects used in the study were as follows: (1) Sixty-three desired to, but no training-related jobs were available to them in their immediate work and residence areas; (2) Twenty-three did not desire to work at training-related jobs; and (3) Twenty-four subjects were not applicable to this criterion because they worked at least one week during the experimental period at training-related jobs. The writer concluded that subjects have great difficulty in finding training-related jobs. This idea was strongly supported by counselors who were attempting to assist clients in finding such jobs. There seemed to be a tendency for subjects to revert back to "old jobs" or "old systems" of making a living--public welfare, unemployment compensation, friends and relatives and working their wives.

Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance Rating Variables. Job Satisfaction scores, obtained by using the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Questionnaire Blank, and employee performance ratings scores, obtained by using the Goertzel Job Success Rating Scale, Form A, were obtained on subjects who were holding bonafide and legitimate jobs near the end of the experimental period.

When the t test statistic was applied to test the means of job satisfaction scores between counseling treated subjects and control subjects (those not receiving counseling), there was no significant difference found. The average score of treatment group subjects was 62.07 as compared to 62.22 for control group subjects. Job satisfaction average scores obtained from Counselor Number One's treatment group subjects and control group subjects, and average scores obtained from Counselor Number Two's treatment and control subjects, showed little difference. It was concluded that the counseling treatment had no effect upon job satisfaction mean scores among the experimental groups. The two counselors working on the research project (one of whom was the researcher) believed that since the observed employment situations of clients were limited in terms of their clients getting jobs, they had to necessitate channeling their efforts largely in the direction of helping clients firstly to get jobs, and secondly in keeping jobs. This was opposed to one of the basic objectives of the counseling treatment--that was to improve the job satisfaction level of persons, which could have been done to a greater extent if more subjects had been offered satisfactory training-related jobs upon completion of Manpower training. Counselors also believed the counseling experiment was too short (generally about 12 weeks) to bring about any measures of increased job satisfactions that could be fully realized by subjects before the experiment ended. Counselors recognized that occupational counseling would probably never bring about attitude changes on the part of several subjects because of strongly ingrained attitudes developing out of the subjects' years of environmental experiences. However, success on several counseling cases was believed to be obtained by the counselors, inasmuch as the client definitely gave evidence of becoming more cognizant of the importance his work attitudes and of his rightful role in assuming family financial responsibilities.

No significant differences with regard to employee performance rating mean scores were found between treatment group subjects and control group subjects. Although proved not significant, it was observed that those subjects who received counseling had lower observed average employee performance rating scores than those subjects not receiving counseling. Perhaps a conclusion and as an attempt at a logical explanation, it can be recognized that those counseled subjects receiving the lower employee rating scores were also generally those receiving jobs who might otherwise not been successful in obtaining employment. Therefore, giving credit to counseling received, it is quite possible that in this frame of reference a number of additional subjects, successful in job attainment, were actually less proficient workers and obtained lower worker productivity ratings. Counselors beleived they were limited in influencing the attitude of employers toward clients, particularly under existing situations. Most of the clients suffered chronic employment problems and this constituted a basic criterion for selection into Manpower retraining programs. It was accepted that many clients were attempting to get jobs in communities where the unemployment rate ran as high as 10 to 20 percent. Counselors found employers often very impersonal in dealing with subjects because of a prevailing attitude on the part of the employer that there was always someone willing and waiting to assume even a very low esteem job if another worker did not conform to the expectations of work supervisors.

Training Efficiency Variables. A ratio test of those subjects who held bonafide and legitimate jobs against those who did not, yielded significance when the Chi-square statistical test was applied, this in favor of subjects counseled. Forty-four treatment group subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs compared to 11 who did not; as contrasted to 32 control group subjects holding bonafide and legitimate jobs compared to 23 who did not. This ratio was found significant at the .05 level of probability. This finding was not surprising to the researcher since counselors viewed clients as easily being subconsciously maneuvered into recognizing that other people worked at jobs; and, therefore, why should they not? The client-centered counseling technique is, after all, based upon getting the subject to critically understand himself. Persons influenced by this approach found jobs, often not necessarily high paying jobs, even in view of recognized odds against it due to the prevailing high unemployment rate suffered in this section of the state. Therefore, the counselors seem to have actually performed in the role of employment agents in successfully encouraging their clients to work at jobs that had regular deductions of federal income taxes and social security payment.

The counseling treatment did not significantly influence subjects' working at training-related jobs. The implication was clear on this variable. There simply were not enough training-related jobs available in the area. Counselors learned early that if a client wanted to work at a job for which he had been trained, he would probably have to leave that area of Oklahoma or even that region of the country. Clients, shortly after receiving training, were anxious for jobs, quite likely due to anticipated classroom instructional motivation. But several weeks later, this motivation seemed to dwindle when they learned the "hard facts of life"--that they were perhaps in no better position to get jobs locally than they were previous to training. One counselor worked with persons trained to enter developing coal mines in one area of Oklahoma. The training program was perhaps as much as one to several years premature, since the mines were not developing fast enough to absorb trainees completing Manpower training. This was a logical and valid excuse in itself for mine officials not to hire the Manpower trained. However, clients complained that the few who got jobs were workers who "had connections" with someone already working in the mines; or, complained that any "out-of-staters" with past experience in automated mining were highly favored in job attainment. There seemed to be a movement of persons from other parts of the country to this general area because of these people "hearing" about the mines opening and paying a high unionized wage. If this trend continues to materialize, the local Manpower trainee may have as much or more competition in getting a job as he experienced previously. Counselor Number Two found that only 10 out of the 50 subjects he followed worked at training-related jobs. One personal observation counselors made in regard to the area in which they counseled was that MDTA training was perhaps a "temporary relief" from the use of local and state funds for public and private social assistance. For example, if a person is selected to participate in Manpower training, the training allowance stipend, consisting largely of monies from federal sources, is, in fact, substituted for what he would have received from more local sources. The above discussion is not intended to be an indictment of the philosophy and basic principles underlying the Manpower programs. It is simply a recognition of the need for a much larger coordinated approach to the total problem.

Employability Variables. Research findings clearly indicated at the .02 level of probability that those subjects counseled received bonafide and legitimate jobs in fewer weeks following conclusion of their Manpower training programs than those who did not receive training. The logical conclusion was that counselors were acting as employment agents and encouraging their cleints (subjects from treatment groups) to find bonafide and legitimate jobs.

An examination of the percent of time subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period, significantly showed that counseled subjects held jobs a greater percent of time than non-counseled subjects. This was significant at the .01 level of probability when tested by the t test. A conclusion was that counselors influenced treatment subjects in staying with a job, once obtained, rather than to be seeking other jobs or placing the subject in a postition of unemployment.

Three variables were statistically tested with t tests, these relating to monies earned and received during a 12-weeks converted experimental period. No significant differences between the means of treatment and control subject groups were obtained among any. Two of the three income variables tested for significance were the dollars earned from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period, and dollars earned during the last week of the experimental period from bonafide and legitimate jobs. The third variable relating to income, was the amount of total income received from all sources considering such sources as public assistance payment, military disability payments, unemployment compensation payments, and any jobs. Counselors believed they could do little to influence the earning status of clients they counseled. Also, the working subjects generally received wages near the minimum wage level of $1.60 per hour and the degree of dispersion from the means was too small to obtain significant results the t test used in its computation.

Recommendations

This study revealed that counseling did not bring about a higher job satisfaction level on the part of counseled subjects when means of their test scores were tested against those not counseled. Similarly, the employee performance mean test scores of counseled subjects were not significantly different to the magnitude that proved counseling effected this performance. However, the counseling treatment was found to significantly affect (1) the subjects' obtaining bonafide and legitimate jobs, (2) the number of weeks it required subjects to get such jobs, and (3) the percent of time subjects held such jobs. Counseling treatment seemed to have influenced the earning status of subjects little, if any.

The findings of this study were not limited to only reporting results of dependent variables. Rather, variables were also identified that were believed by the researcher to be influencing the outcomes of the study, and to a certain extent, interfering with the experimental treatment of counseling. It was not the intentions of the researcher to attempt to measure the many variables that might be concomitant with other variables or to even consider an assessment of the respective magnitudinal value of each. The writer would recommend that in further experimental counseling studies of this type, especially when subjects are from the lower socio-economic sectors of the population, that such an assessment be attempted.

Considering the counseling of Manpower trainees, who have just completed training and are re-entering the labor market, the researcher would highly recommend that pilot projects using similar sampling and treatment techniques be tried in different sections of the country--urban as well as rural, in socio-economically depressed areas as well as in those not so depressed. The writer further believes that one occupational counselor could work with about 100 counselees in rural, non-farm areas such as found in Eastern Oklahoma. Some subjects do not need such counseling services while others need intensive and frequent conferences with the counselor.

It is further recommended in studies of this type, that someone other than the counselors be responsible for collection of data. This would seem desirable in order to reduce the bias that might occur from the counselor contacting subjects he did not counsel, comprising the control group subjects. There may also be need for the development and use of more sensitive instruments that will measure employability (or failure) and other occupational considerations possibly resulting from counseling treatments.

Generally, the administering of counseling services to persons of the rural, non-farm sector was seen by both counselors as reasonably easy. Persons used as subjects in this study were very receptive to counselors and seemed sincere in inviting counselors to return for additional sessions. The writer contends that it is best to take the counseling services to subjects in the privacy of their homes, rather than try to lure subjects into town and city offices where they would feel uncomfortable.

What is considered by the researcher to be an important recommendation is presented with regard to the daily working hours which counselors should attempt to follow. In order to have maximun benefit, the counseling should be scheduled and administered to accommodate the extremely varied pattern of work schedules of clients. Most of the counseling sessions in this research project were held with clients from about three o'clock in the afternoon to as late as 10 o'clock in the evening, because this was the best time to find clients at home. Also, it gave the counselor an opportunity to work with families of clients, this considered very worthwhile by both counselors. With those subjects working "swing shifts" or "graveyard shifts," the counselors would normally see them in the forenoon hours. Counselors actually experienced very little truely defined on-the-job counseling since clients at work were first responsible to the job they held. However, employers of clients could be seen by counselors during the day with little difficutly.

Of considerable importance are the personal characteristics of the individual counselor. The investigator believes there are certain characteristics which must be possessed by individuals in order to effectively conduct counseling services of an occupational nature with subjects from the lower socio-economic populations. Counselors must be able to relate to the clients served and, in fact, must be willing to often times learn from them. Occupational counselors should be well-trained in the human behavioral sciences and have a strong interest in assisting persons less fortunate. Again, those individuals seeking to serve in these capacities must have the quality of being able to go into homes without showing an undue concern about housekeeping practices far below standards to which they may be accustomed. They will see small children with little or no clothing. Alcoholic beverage bottles and an inebriated client may be the scene, this in contrast to a family enjoying a comfortable evening together. The effective counselor must be able to understand the true meaning of slang and colloquialisms used by persons from the lower socio-economic levels. Occupational counselors must have knowledge of jobs and employment opportunities--locally, regionally and even nationally--in order to assist clients in fulfilling work expectations.

Above all, counselors must concentrate on the clients as they are, not as to what they expect them to be--and together with the client work from such an elemental basis. It seems that past experiences in lower esteem jobs could be a positive factor in providing occupational counselors with insights and understanding very helpful in working with culturally disadvantaged people. Undoubtedly, an occupational counselor serving the needs of socio-economically deprived persons would need to possess some unique qualities, chief of which is a belief in the ultimate value or worth of all human beings.

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APPENDIX A

JOB SATISFACTION INSTRUMENT

MANPOWER PERFORMANCE SURVEY

JOB OPINIONS *

Code No. ____

Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. We want to know how people feel about different jobs. This blank contains eighteen statements about jobs. There are no right or wrong answers. We would like your honest opinion on each of the statements.

Directions: IF NOW EMPLOYED, PLEASE CIRCLE THE PHRASE BELOW EACH STATEMENT WHICH BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR PRESENT JOB.

1. My job is like a hobby to me.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
6. I am often bored with my job.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
   STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
11. I definitely dislike my job.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
15. I like my job better than the average worker does.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
16. My job is pretty uninteresting.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
17. I find real enjoyment in my work.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE
18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.
    STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

*This instrument is the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Blank (5). The title and directions were changed to meet the needs of the study, with the written permission granted by Arthur H. Brayfield, March 22, 1968.

APPENDIX B

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE INSTRUMENT

MANPOWER PERFORMANCE SURVEY*

Code No. ____

Sponsored by the Oklahoma State University Research Foundation

Directions: Place a check mark ☒ on the box in front of each statement that you believe describes or characterizes the employee under consideration. Read a few of the statements over before checking any. Check as many or as few as you think apply to the employee.

☐ 1. Slow but satisfactory.

☐ 2. Welcomes constructive criticism.

☐ 3. Personal habits are definitely unsatisfactory.

☐ 4. Always reports to work on time.

☐ 5. High dependability and a keen understanding.

☐ 6. Meets normal standards of work.

☐ 7. Dependability very poor; requires constant driving.

☐ 8. Only sufficient knowledge to hold present job; limited experience.

☐ 9. Profits by criticism.

☐ 10. Intelligent, discriminating and exact in his work efforts.

☐ 11. Always willing but entirely too congenial.

☐ 12. Careless, inefficient, wastes time; inaccurate; fails to improve; avoids responsibity.

☐ 13. Gets discouraged easily.

☐ 14. Satisfactory in every respect.

☐ 15. Apparently does not like indoor work or to be confined.

☐ 16. Would rather talk than work.

☐ 17. An excellent worker in all respects.

☐ 18. Handles poorly matters requiring mental concentration.

☐ 19. Always loves to learn.

☐ 20. Resents criticism; fails to get along; disagreeable.

☐ 21. Rarely makes a poor decision.

☐ 22. Follows instructions; work generally up to standard; requires normal supervision.

☐ 23. A little slow to learn.

☐ 24. Work often below standard; requires frequent checking; requires more than usual supervision.

☐ 25. Will listen and do as told whatever is undertaken.

*This instrument is the Goertzel Job Success Scale (13). The title and directions were changed to meet the needs of the study, with the written permission granted by Victor Goertzel, March 26, 1968.

APPENDIX C

SELECTED CASE STUDIES

SELECTED CASE STUDIES

Case Number One. Age: 33; Occupational Background: Construction laborer, truck driver, and roughnecker (oil field work); Military: Eight years in Marine Corps; Education: Eight years; Marital Status: Married twice, four children from first marriage and pays child support for them, remarried woman with six children, no children from the second marriage, claims 12 dependents; MDTA Training: Mine Machinery Operator, "Entry."

The client was visited by the counselor on six occasions and received seven and one-half hours of face-to-face counseling. The counselee was viewed by the counselor to have serious occupational and social adjustment problems due to his past family experiences. Reared in another southern state, his home environment was one of alcoholism and finally divorce for his parents who both later remarried. He entered the Marine Corps under age and married shortly after military severance. According to the counselee, his first marriage was unsuccessful due to the promiscuousness and alcoholism of both partners. The first wife, according to the client, applied for and received legal separation. She had him arrested on a number of occasions and he spent about five years out of a ten-year period in jail for the charge of non-child support. The counselee said he was encouraged to get out of two other southern states so they would not have to keep arresting him. Finally, his wife became pregnant while he was in jail and he was able to obtain a divorce. In 1967, he married a woman with six children. The counselor was in the home on four different occasions and judged the marriage to be stable. The counselee claims he could control his urge to drink, but would drink socially. The client's wife worked in a local restaurant and the older children cared for the younger ones. The subjects' landlady reported that the children had a poorly balanced diet consisting mainly of starchy foods with little milk, meat or eggs.

The counselee's most serious current problem was his inability to hold a permanent job. He held 10 different jobs during the 15 week experimental period. It seems that he would get into an argument with his immediate supervisor and quit one instant before being terminated. The client frequently boasted of never being without a job and being a "hard worker." He was without permanent work only for several weeks, and during that period, he found light handy-man jobs and construction jobs in the town where he lived. The counselor visited with the client about the effect his temper had on steady employment. He often said he "would take nothin' off no one." The client was cognizant of his problem and expressed a desire to hold a steady job if the employer would but "treat him right." The counselor discussed with the client what the client thought the employer should expect of his work activities.

The counselor terminated counseling sessions with this client after 15 weeks of treatment, collected case data, and administered the job satisfaction scale. The employee performance rating was given to his immediate employer from a concrete-mixing plant. The client had a job satisfaction of 71 compared to a mean of 62.23 and an employee performance rating of 41 compared to a mean of 38.32 for others in the counselor's treatment group.

It was learned several weeks later that the counselee had quit the last job he held while under counseling treatment in a dispute with his supervisor about not reporting a personal injury while on the job. Again he found a job (one he had held previously) and had since held it (at least for two months) according to his landlady. She believed the client was "straightening out."

Summary to Case Number One. The counselor felt a moderate degree of counseling success on the case. Basically, the counseling treatment consisted of being a good listener and interjecting questions and comments that would help the client understand himself and his problems. The acceptance of counseling by the client was excellent. The client needed a person to expound his problems to in order to acquaint himself with his "real" problems. It was believed that the client would continue to respond to counseling treatment as long as it was administered.

Case Number Two. Age: 47; Occupational Background: Truck driving and construction laborer; Military: Nine years in Army; Education: Eight years; Marital Status: One marriage, two children, claims four dependents; MDTA Training: Mine Machinery Operator, "Entry."

The counselee was visited by the counselor six times (three at his home and three at his place of work) with an additional counselor contact with his wife and children. The client was environmentally affected against sound occupational adjustment by (1) his age "working against" him, and (2) an employer who failed to meet his payroll requirements. At the first contact, one week after the client graduated from Manpower, the counselor found the client unemployed and extremely nervous about his unemployment situation. He expressed a resentment about not getting employment in the local coal mine, but said he would continue to make contact with the mine employment office in hopes of "getting on." He made the contacts, but never received employment in the mines.

The counselor offered to assist him in finding a job, and made a contact with a prospective employer who needed day laborers. However, the employer said the client would not be a good worker and he was not interested in him because the client was too old, had lived in this area all his life (meaning if he was a good worker, he would have left this area long before), and the client's past record of construction and truck driving meant he was a "poor worker" or he would have had a skill. However, the prospective employer gave the counselor an application form for his client. The next day the counselor assisted the client in filling out the application form and the client delivered it to the prospective employer. He did not get the job.

On the next contact, about two weeks later, the counselor found the client working for a local machine works. The client complained bitterly that his employer gave him only $25 of $64 he had coming for a week's work. The client and counselor decided it would be best for him to continue working at this job because it was unlikely that he could find better employment. On subsequent contacts this situation did not improve. The counselor investigated and found other employees of the machine works had been treated similarly. This situation was discussed with Employment Security Officials who also confirmed that this employer had been using this "tactic" for several years. They felt that the counselor would be justified in reporting this discrepancy to the Department of Labor. In checking with three employees, including the client, at the machine works, it was found none of them would be willing to testify against the employer and the case was not reported to Department of Labor Officials by the counselor.

The situation, however, caused hardships upon the client's family. The client's wife, selected as a senior class sponsor on behalf of a daughter graduating from high school, was unable to make the senior class trip to Oklahoma City. She expressed their plight once by saying about their family situation, "we ain't nothin' but poor farm folks." The daughter was marrying at about this time and the family felt they could not give her as nice a wedding as they would have liked.

It was learned that the client quit the job several weeks after counseling treatment ended and accepted a job with a construction company he had worked for several years past. The job site was 80 miles away from his home and in Arkansas.

The job satisfaction score by the client, considering the job for the machine works, yielded a moderately low score--a 53 compared to a mean of 62.23 for other subjects in the treatment group. Likewise, the employer gave a low score of 27 for the client's employee performance rating compared to 38.32 obtained for other subjects. The employer checked items on the scale such as, a little slow to learn, slow but satisfactory, and work often below standard, requires frequent checking, requires normal supervision.

Summary to Case Number Two. In this case, the counselor did not become involved in any deep psychological counseling. Rather, the counselor was attempting to help the client overcome the psychological setback of working for an employer who did not meet his payroll--a situation that the client could do little about. In looking back at the case, the counselor believes he made a basic mistake in not pressing charges against the employer on behalf of the client. A serious question arises as to just how involved an occupational counselor should become in cases such as this.

Case Number Three. Age: 36; Occupational Background: Laborer; Military: None; Education: Four years; Marital Status: One marriage, five children, claims seven dependents; MDTA Training: Mine Machinery Operator "Entry."

The client was visited by the counselor on three occasions and one to two hour counseling sessions were held. The counselee openly discussed his past employment and how he happened to bring his family to that area of the state. He had worked 12 years as a laborer in one of Oklahoma's metropolitan cities. On this job he had raised his hourly wage to $2.25 per hour. Through interviews he lead the counselor to believe he was an outstanding worker (later verified on the primary job he held during the experimental treatment period).

When quizzed about why he moved his family to Southeastern Oklahoma, he explained that they were discontented with living conditions in the major city. He was also motivated by a friend with whom he worked who moved to this area of Oklahoma at about the same time. The friend originally was from this area of the state and his main reasons for coming back were to be near his relatives and he too disliked living conditions in the major city. The counselee was reared about 100 miles away in a neighboring southeastern state. Therefore, the counselor judged that the client and his friend were returning to an environment to which they had been accustomed as youths.

The counselee worked the last nine weeks of the 12 weeks experimental period at an electric motor manufacturing concern in Arkansas, 45 miles from his residence. The first three weeks he had worked for a local saw mill company as a laborer. He said it was the only employment he could obtain after completing Manpower training, but he thought it was important to work. The client's work in the electric motor company was in the shipping department where a slight amount of reading was necessary--to identify certain symbols commonly used on shipping tags. However, the client was illiterate. He impressed the counselor by bringing home several shipping tags to show the counselor that he could interpret certain symbols well enough to carry out the tasks required by the job. For this he was extremely proud and said his job was "teaching him something." The counselor followed up this cue and explained the Oklahoma Basic Adult Education Program to him, and he seemed very interested. The client said he would like to be able to read a newspaper like other people.

Before the counselor returned for the last visit, he contacted the local public school officials and made arrangements for the client to receive general education beginning in the Fall. The client, on the last visit, reconfirmed this desire to read and write, and was told that the public school officials would be in touch with him.

A visit to the electric motor manufacturing plant where the client worked and a conference by the counselor with a personnel officer yielded considerable praise for this worker. The officer told the counselor that the client was due a raise shortly. He was receiving a base pay of $1.69 per hour and about five to 10 hours of overtime per week. He had been classified by the organization's worker rating system into the highest level they had. The client's foreman completed the employee performance rating form used in the study and it yielded a score of 43, this being slightly above average for all subjects included in the study. The client's job satisfaction score, however, was one of the three highest scores recorded in the study, a 76. The personnel officer asked the counselor to send other MDTA men like the client to him. The counselor attempted to send another client to them, but he failed to keep the appointment the counselor had made for him.

The counselee and his family lived in rather modest surroundings--a run-down, unmodern, rental house in the foothills of the Ouachita Mountains, but the road to their home was passable during all times of the year. The family was observed to have plenty of nourishing foods to eat and they kept several dairy cows for a fresh milk supply. The mother did a "good" job of housekeeping, considering the bably worn but adequate domestic materials she had to work with.

The children liked the rural school they attended and several of the older children were participating in organized athletic events sponsored by the public schools. The family enjoyed swimming in clean streams nearby, as well as activities centered around hunting and fishing. On every counseling session, the counselor was cordially invited into the home.

The counseling sessions were very cordial and counselee thanked the counselor for coming "out to see him and be sure to come back." The counselor believed that the client had few friends whom he could confide in and identify with. He sincerely appreciated the "friend" the counselor was to him.

The client seemed a little depressed when the counselor told the client that this would be his last visit to him. It was unfortunate that no one was available to continue the counselee-counselor relationship in the provacy of the client's home. The client, due to his cultural deficiencies, was not the type of individual who would drive to a downtown office of the local Employment Securities Commission or other public agencies to obtain further counseling services.

Summary to Case Number Three. The counselor viewed the client in question as being very receptive of a relationship beneficially important to the client's continuing occupational adjustment. Basically, the client appreciated the counselor's visits because he felt someone cared about him. Information obtained in counseling sessions lead the counselor to believe that the client will continue to be proud of his work efforts; and, he will occupationally be highly adjusted to work tasks in the future. Whether this will continue or not will probably be contingent upon future values he obtains in peer relationships that develop for him. Although the counselor judged this case to be one of the more successful, it seemed fruitless in the presence of the realization that without future counseling the subject could succumb to the lack of incentive and ambition which surrounds him environmentally.

OE 6000 (REV. 9-66)

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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TITLE
The Effects of on-the-job Counseling on Employers' Rating and Job Satisfaction of Persons Trained in Selected Oklahoma MDTA Classes During 1967-68

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Manpower Development
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Job Satisfaction
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Adult Vocational Education
Hard Core Unemployed

IDENTIFIERS Manpower Development and Training Administration, Employment Security Administration, Eastern Oklahoma

ABSTRACT

Scope and Method of Study: The central purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of counseling upon subjects from selected Oklahoma MDTA classes operating in 1967-68. The effects of counseling were measured by (1) subjects' job satisfaction scores, (2) employee performance scores, (3) training efficiency and (4) general employability. A total of 110 Manpower trained subjects were included in the study's selected population. Data, used to analyze certain dependent variables and factors of an ecologic and demographic nature, were collected upon treatment group subjects following an experimental period of counseling treatment. Those in the control group had similar data collected upon them at a time comparable to that collected upon their Manpower classmates.

Nine dependent variables were tested for significance at the .05 level of probability in order to detect the possible influence of the counseling treatment upon administered subjects. Significant differences, in favor of the counseling treatment, were found for (1) status as to bonafide and legitimate jobs held, (2) the number of weeks elapsing prior to the initial employment of subjects in bonafide and legitimate jobs and (3) the percent of time that subjects held bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period. No significant difference was discovered between subjects counseled and those not counseled with regard to (1) job satisfaction score, (2) employee performance rating scores, (3) training-related jobs held by subjects, (4) earnings received from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the experimental period, (5) earnings received from all income during the experimental period and (6) earnings received from bonafide and legitimate jobs during the last week of the experimental period.